This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

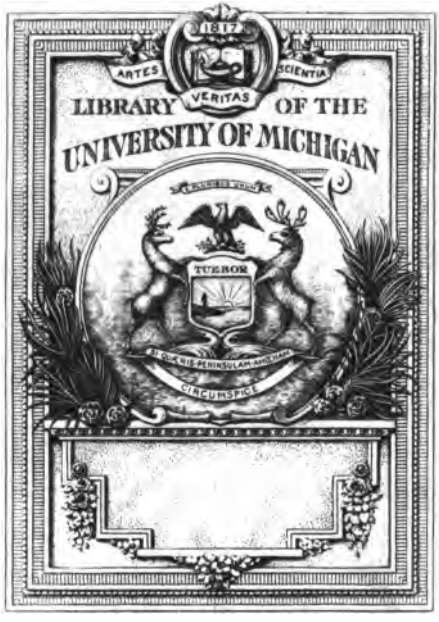
+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`

AP
3
.U5


ARTES
VERITAS
SCIENTIA
LIBRARY OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN
TUEBOR
CIRCUMSPICE

FRONTISPIECE.

UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

VOL. XCIII.

Published by W. Bent, London 1793.

UNIV.

THE

UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE

OF

KNOWLEDGE AND PLEASURE;

CONTAINING

Letters	Hiſtory	Aſtronomy	Philoſophy
Debates	Biography	Geography	Medicine
Eſſays	Antiquities	Mathematics	Chemiſtry
Tales	Voyages	Mechanics	Huſbandry
Poetry	Travels	Architecture	Gardening

AND OTHER

Arts and Sciences;

Which may render it

Inſtructive and Entertaining.

To which occaſionally will be added

An Impartial Account of Books in ſeveral Languages,

And of the STATE of LEARNING in Europe;

ALSO

Of the NEW THEATRICAL ENTERTAINMENTS.

VOL. XCIII.

LONDON:

Publiſhed under His Majeſty's Royal Licence,

By W. BENT, at the KING'S ARMS, PATER-NOSTER ROW.

MDCCXCIII.

Complete. rds
Clark
2-2-37
330-11

THE UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE AND PLEASURE,

FOR JULY, 1793.

VOL. XCIII.

REFLECTIONS *on* ELOQUENCE:

Illuſtrative of a beautiful Frontiſpiece, repreſenting POLYHYMNIA, *the Muſe of* SONG *and* RHETORIC.

High o'er the reſt I ſee the goddeſs riſe,
Looſe to the breeze her upper garment flies;
By turns, within her eyes the Paſſions burn,
And ſofter Paſſions languiſh in their turn;
Upon her tongue Perſuaſion or Command,
And decent Action dwells upon her hand. PARNELL.

ELOQUENCE may be defined to be the Art of Speaking in ſuch a manner, as to obtain the object for which we ſpeak. Whenever a man ſpeaks or writes, he is ſuppoſed, as a rational being, to have ſome end in view; either to inform, to amuſe, or to perſuade his hearers, for the attainment of ſome important object; and whoever ſpeaks, or writes, in ſuch a manner, as to adapt all his words effectually to that end, may be denominated truly eloquent. Whatever the ſubject be, there is room for the exertions of eloquence, and that, not only in orations, but in hiſtory, and even in philoſophy and divinity. This definition of eloquence includes all the kinds of it; whether they are calculated to inſtruct, to perſuade, or to amuſe. But as the moſt important ſubject of diſcourſe is action, or conduct, the power of eloquence appears principally when it is employed to influence conduct, and to excite to action. As it is chiefly with reference to this end, that Eloquence becomes the object of art, it may be defined, in this view of it, the art of perſuaſion. Thus Claudio, in Meaſure for Meaſure,

ſure, reſts all his hopes of life in the eloquence of his ſiſter Iſabella:

Acquaint her with the danger of my ſtate;
Implore her, in my voice, that ſhe make friends
To the ſtrict deputy; bid herſelf aſſay him;
I have great hope in that: for in her youth
There is a prone and ſpeechleſs dialect,
Such as moves men; beſides, *ſhe hath proſperous art,*
When ſhe will play with reaſon and diſcourſe,
And well ſhe can perſuade.

To influence and perſuade, the moſt eſſential requiſites are, ſolid argument, clear method, and a character of probity conſpicuous in the ſpeaker, united to ſuch graces of ſtyle and utterance, as ſhall attract attention. Good ſenſe is the foundation of all. No man can be truly eloquent without it: for none but fools can be perſuaded by fools. To perſuade a man of ſenſe, he muſt firſt be convinced; which can be done by no other method, than that of ſatisfying his underſtanding of the reaſonableneſs of what is propoſed.

Convincing and perſuading, though they are ſometimes confounded, import, notwithſtanding, different things, which it is requiſite, in courſe, to diſtinguiſh from each other. Conviction affects the underſtanding only; perſuaſion, the will and practice. It is the buſineſs of the philoſopher to enforce conviction of the truth: it is the buſineſs of the orator to perſuade his hearer to act agreeably to it, by engaging the affections on its ſide. Conviction and perſuaſion do not always go together. They *ought*, indeed, to go together; and they *would* do ſo, if our inclinations regularly followed the dictates of our underſtanding. But as human nature is conſtituted, a perſon may be convinced, that virtue, juſtice, and public ſpirit, are laudable, while, at the ſame time, he is not perſuaded to act in conformity to their dictates. The inclination may revolt, although the underſtanding is ſatisfied: the paſſions may be too powerful for the judgment. Conviction, nevertheleſs, is always one avenue to the inclination, or heart; and it is that which an orator muſt attempt to gain: for no perſuaſion is likely to be permanent, which is not founded on conviction. But, in order to perſuade, an orator muſt go farther than merely producing conviction: he muſt conſider man as a creature moved by many different ſprings, and muſt act upon them all. He muſt addreſs himſelf to the paſſions: he muſt paint to the fancy, and touch the heart: and hence, beſide ſolid argument, and clear method, all the conciliating and intereſting arts, both of compoſition and pronunciation, muſt enter into the idea of eloquence.

It may be objected to eloquence, perhaps, that it is an art which may be employed in perſuading to ill, as well as to good;

To make the worſe appear
The better reaſon, to perplex and daſh
Matureſt counſels.

MILTON.

Unqueſtionably, eloquence may be thus ill-employed; and ſo, in like manner, may reaſoning, which has been too often employed to lead men into error. But who would think of forming an argument, on this account, againſt the cultivation of our reaſoning powers? Not only reaſon and eloquence, but every art that has been cultivated by mankind, may be abuſed, and may prove dangerous in the hands of unprincipled men; but it would be abſolutely ridiculous to aſſert, as a conſequence, that they ought not to be ſtudied. Let Truth and Virtue have the ſame arms that are put into the hands of Vice and Falſehood, and the former are the moſt likely to be victorious. Eloquence is not an invention of the ſchools: Nature teaches every man to be eloquent, when he is much in earneſt. Let him be placed in ſome critical ſituation; let him have ſome important intereſt at ſtake; and he will

will ſcarcely fail to adopt the moſt effectual means of perſuaſion. The art of oratory propoſes nothing more than to proceed in that track which Nature has firſt pointed out; and the more exactly this track is followed, in the greater degree that eloquence is properly cultivated, the more we ſhall be guarded againſt the abuſe which bad men make of it, and enabled to diſtinguiſh between true eloquence and the mere tricks of ſophiſtry.

The firſt kind of eloquence is that, the only aim of which is to pleaſe the auditors. This is the loweſt degree of the art; and ſuch, in general, is the eloquence of panegyrics, inaugural orations, addreſſes to great men, and other harangues of the ſame nature. This ornamental kind of compoſition is not to be totally rejected. It may innocently entertain the mind; and it may be blended, at the ſame time, with very uſeful ſentiments. But, unqueſtionably, where the oration has no other aim than merely to ſhine and to pleaſe, there is great danger that art will be forced into oſtentation, and that the compoſition, inſtead of being pleaſing, will become languid and wearifome.

A ſecond and higher degree of eloquence is, when the orator aims not merely to pleaſe, but to inform, to convince, and to inſtruct; when his art is exerted in removing prejudices againſt himſelf and his cauſe, in ſelecting the moſt proper arguments, ſtating them with the greateſt force, arranging them in the beſt order, expreſſing them with propriety and beauty, and diſpoſing him, conſequently, to embrace that ſide of the cauſe for which he is pleading. Within this compaſs, the eloquence of the bar is principally employed.

But there is a third, and ſtill higher degree of eloquence, in which a greater power is exerted over the human mind; by which we are not only convinced, but are intereſted, agitated, and carried along with the ſpeaker. By this, our paſſions are made to riſe with his; we enter into all his emotions; we love, we deteſt, we reſent, as he inſpires us, and are excited to determine, or to act, with energy and vigour. Debate, in popular aſſemblies, opens the moſt illuſtrious field to this ſpecies of eloquence, and the pulpit alſo admits it.

This laſt degree of eloquence, it is to be obſerved, is conſtantly the offſpring of paſſion. By paſſion is to be underſtood that ſtate of the mind in which it is agitated, and fired, by ſome important object in view. A man may convince, and even perſuade others to act, by mere reaſon and argument. But that degree of eloquence which gains the admiration of mankind, and properly conſtitutes an orator, is never found without warmth or paſſion. Paſſion, when in ſuch a degree as to rouſe and kindle the mind, without throwing it out of the poſſeſſion of itſelf, is univerſally found to exalt all the human powers. It renders the mind infinitely more enlightened than it is in its calm moments; more penetrating, vigorous, and maſterly. A man, actuated by a ſtrong paſſion, becomes much greater than he is at other times. He is conſcious of more energy and vigour; he utters greater ſentiments, conceives higher deſigns, and executes them with a boldneſs and felicity, of which, on other occaſions, he would not think himſelf capable. But it is principally with reſpect to perſuaſion that the power of paſſion is felt. Almoſt every man, *in paſſion*, is eloquent; with the reſerve, that he retains that entire poſſeſſion of himſelf, the loſs of which conſtitutes what is called, a man *in a paſſion*. In paſſion then, warmed, animated, elevated, but ſtill himſelf, the orator is at no loſs for words and arguments. He tranſmits to others, by a kind of contagious ſympathy, the warm ſentiments which he feels: his looks and geſtures are all perſuaſive; and here nature ſhews herſelf infinitely more powerful than art. The orator who would affect his hearers, muſt firſt be affected himſelf.

From

From this effect of enthuſiaſm, or warmth of any kind, in public ſpeakers, it is evident, that all laboured declamation, and affected ornaments of ſtyle, that evince the mind of the orator to be cool and unmoved, are inconſiſtent with perſuaſive eloquence: Hence, all ſtudied prettineſſes, in geſture or pronunciation, detract greatly from the weight of a ſpeaker. Hence a ſpeech that is read moves us leſs than one that is ſpoken, as having leſs the appearance of coming warm from the heart; and hence, to call a man cold, is the ſame thing as to ſay, that he is not eloquent.

Eloquence thus appears to be a high talent, and of great importance in ſociety; requiring both natural genius, and great improvement from art. Conſidered as the art of perſuaſion, it requires, in its loweſt ſtate, ſoundneſs of underſtanding, and conſiderable acquaintance with human nature; and, in its higheſt degrees, it requires, moreover, ſtrong ſenſibility of mind, a warm and lively imagination, joined with correctneſs of judgment, an extenſive command of the power of language, and all the graces of pronunciation and delivery. In a word, the contraſt between mere juſt and ſenſible ſpeaking, and the faſcination of perſuaſive eloquence, is thus finely pictured by Homer:

When Atreus' ſon harangued the liſt'ning train,
Juſt was his ſenſe, and his expreſſion plain;
His words ſuccinct, yet full, without a fault;
He ſpoke no more than juſt the thing he ought.
But when Ulyſſes roſe, in thought profound,
His modeſt eyes he fix'd upon the ground.
As one unſkill'd or dumb, he ſeem'd to ſtand,
Nor rais'd his head, nor ſtretch'd his ſcepter'd hand.
But, when he ſpeaks, what elocution flows!
Soft as the fleeces of deſcending ſnows,
The copious accents fall, with eaſy art;
Melting they fall, and ſink into the heart!
Wond'ring we hear, and fix'd in deep ſurpriſe;
Our ears refute the cenſure of our eyes.

POPE.

Sketch of the Office *of* CHANCELLOR *of the* UNIVERSITY *of* Oxford.

AS this month has been diſtinguiſhed by the ſolemnities which accompany the admiſſion of a new chancellor into the univerſity of Oxford, ſome account of this office may not be unacceptable, eſpecially as the nature of it has been groſsly miſrepreſented; ſome fancying that it is an office of great emolument, and others one of great buſineſs; neither of which is the caſe.

By the conſtitutions of the univerſity, the chancellor is a magiſtrate of high honour, power, and dignity, commonly one of the principal nobility, or of the higheſt prelates. He is elected by the convocation, and his office is for life. It is his buſineſs to ſuperintend the government of the whole univerſity, to maintain its privileges and liberties, to call aſſemblies, to hear and determine controverſies by calling of courts, and to puniſh delinquents.—The chancellors were anciently ſtiled rectors (a name ſtill given to the ſame office in the Scotch Univerſities) and maſters of ſcholars, and alſo rectors and maſters of ſchools. The word chancellor was introduced in the time of Theodoſius, Arcadius, and Honorius; and he was then a private judicial officer, employed in writing and recording ſuch judicial edicts as related to the office; and from doing this in a place incloſed with lattices *(cancelli)* he was termed *cancellarius*.

The regent and non-regent maſters formerly elected their chancellor, and preſented him to the biſhop of Lincoln as dioceſan, for his confirmation of him: but, about the latter end of Edward the third's reign, the convocation of regents and non-regents had the

the entire power of this nomination and confirmation devolved upon them. The election was then biennial, and ſometimes annual; which continued till the time that John Ruſſel, biſhop of Lincoln, was choſen for life.—The duty annexed to the office is, to licence all books printed at the Clarendon preſs; to licence taverns, alehouſes, coachmen, carriers, and to receive the rents due to the univerſity, unleſs otherwiſe ſpecially appointed to be received: to take care that ſermons, lectures, diſputations, and other exerciſes, be performed; to ſuperintend the police of the place, and, in a word, to govern the univerſity according to her laws, cuſtoms, privileges, and ſtatutes, and not at his own will and pleaſure.

Such is the hiſtory of this office, as handed down to us by the Oxford records; and ſuch *were* the duties of the office; but the revolutions of time have left little more than the name. The chancellor is now, properly ſpeaking, more an ornament to the univerſity, than a perſon of any utility; and the advantage he derives from the office, is to him merely ornamental. It is, indeed, the higheſt poſſible dignity that can be conferred upon any man; but it is not attended with the ſmalleſt emolument or patronage. The buſineſs of the office, which was formerly executed by the chancellor in perſon, is now entirely delegated to his deputy, the vice chancellor, aſſiſted by the pro vices, and other officers. The chancellor himſelf never viſits the univerſity after his admiſſion, nor does the univerſity wiſh to ſee him in any character but that of a private gentleman. The expence of receiving him in his official character is very great, and is entirely defrayed by the univerſity, which is, at preſent, *poor*.

Some may ſtartle at this aſſertion, having heard much of the rich endowments of our univerſities; but, on enquiry, they will find it to be fact. Individual colleges, compoſing the univerſity, may be, and many of them are, very rich; but the univerſity funds are low. The reaſon is, that all thoſe valuable bequeſts and donations, which have been made by munificent noblemen and prelates, have been made to the reſpective colleges, to which the donors belonged, while the funds of the univerſity have received very few gifts of this kind. The univerſity is a great corporation; and each college is a little corporation within it, independent of its neighbour; like the ſeveral ſtates of America, who have yet a conſtitution in common. This matter may be explained, likewiſe, by comparing the univerſity to the city of London. It is well known that many of the livery companies may be exceedingly rich, while the city itſelf is poor; and the reaſon is the ſame both here, and at Oxford.

The chancellor, therefore, never viſits the univerſity after the ceremony of his admiſſion, but in a private character, unleſs, perhaps, a royal viſitation were to take place. He would then attend in ſtate, with the other great perſonages. But this cuſtom has long been diſuſed.

It reſts entirely with the convocation, whom they ſhall elect to this high office. That there is no particular deſcription of perſons who are deemed excluſively fit for it, will appear from peruſing the liſt of chancellors for a few centuries back. Thoſe of the preſent century, for example, have been,

1700. James, duke of Ormond.
1716. Charles, earl of Arran.
1759. John, earl of Weſtmorland.
1762. George, earl of Litchfield.
1772. Frederick, lord North.
1792. William, duke of Portland.

The election of the duke of Portland was conſidered as a deviation from the cuſtom of electing men in power; but there has not, in fact, been any ſuch cuſtom. It is generally expected, indeed, that the nobleman choſen, ſhould have been a benefactor to the univerſity, or that he will be one.

At

At the election in Auguſt laſt, a nobleman high in office was propoſed privately, but he declining it, it was generally underſtood that the miniſterial favour inclined toward the duke of Portland; and the duke of Beaufort gave up the canvaſs, after a feeble ſtruggle. The former was conſequently elected without oppoſition, was ſworn into the office at Bulſtrode, in the month of November laſt, and immediately choſe Dr. Wills, warden of Wadham, to be vice-chancellor. The latter office continues four years. The perſon holding it muſt be in holy orders, and the head of ſome college.

O.

ON NOVELS.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

LETTER I.

SIR,

ALTHOUGH it be undeniable, that a taſte for reading uſeful and inſtructive books has of late become more general than ever, yet it is ſome diminution of the pleaſure we reap from this conſideration, that a taſte for reading the moſt ſuperficial novels is likewiſe on the increaſe. By novels, I do not mean ſuch productions as Richardſon, Fielding, Smollet, and one or two others of later date have given to the world, but that collection of traſh inceſſantly poured out from our profeſſed manufactories, where *freſh novels* are advertiſed for *in quantities!* To produce ſuch a number as the preſs every winter teems with, the principles of mechanics ſeem to have been reſorted to, and a certain quantity of paper is filled up with as much eaſe, as a labourer will plough a certain number of acres, or a painter cover a certain number of ſquare feet; with this difference, indeed, that the ground muſt be well opened, and the paint ſubſtantially laid on; conſiderations which never enter into the heads of our manufacturers of novels, to whom quantity and expedition are the only objects.

From the workman-like facility, with which modern novels are compoſed, and from their increaſing number, it is not, perhaps, too ridiculous to ſuppoſe that, in a caſe where genius is ſo little conſulted, the operation might be performed by a machine. In our days, labour has been wonderfully abridged by the inventions of an Arkwright; and where the demand for novels is ſo great, as to oblige certain bookſellers to adverti ſe for them by wholeſale, it is not unreaſonable to foreſee the time when ſome ingenious gentleman will apply for a patent, entitling him and his heirs to the excluſive advantages ariſing from 'a Machine for making Novels,' which will ſave the future labours of induſtry, and furniſh the public with an article equally good, and executed in a tenth part of the time.'—Theſe 'Spinning Jennies of Sentiment,' would at firſt, perhaps, meet with the ſame oppoſition from the labouring manufacturers as followed ſir Richard Arkwright's machine, and which will follow every invention that ſeems to throw labourers out of their bread; but, in time, the world would be reconciled to it, and the lovers of novels, I am certain, would loſe nothing.

The materials of which modern novels are compoſed, are extremely ſimple.—A young lady falls in love with ſome gentleman, who is diſagreeable to her parents; for this latter circumſtance is indiſpenſable. To theſe muſt be added a lord, or a colonel, who is on the watch to raviſh, or run away with her, juſt as it may happen—and a high-ſpirited brother, who is to reſent this diſgrace to his family, while the lover is to conſider it as a felonious injury done to himſelf.—Not that the brother and the lover are to act in unioſon, for that might tend to bring

matters to a concluſion too ſoon. The brother, who knows nothing of his ſiſter's amour, is to bring down from the univerſity ſome ſir Edward, or ſir George, a charming young baronet, juſt come of age, who, of courſe, falls in love with the lady. The mother is to be ſecretly on the ſide of the daughter, and the father, conſequently, to be left in a minority, but with power ſufficient to fruſtrate their plans, at leaſt for three whole volumes, and a part of the fourth. The brother, who muſt not be unemployed, is in love with his ſiſter's companion, a very beautiful orphan, very ſentimental, but remarkably poor, who turns out, however, at laſt, to be the daughter of *ſomebody*. — To theſe may be added, a maiden aunt, very much addicted to religion and brandy, and who having no ſport of her own, contrives to ſpoil that of every other body. An old ſteward, a park, a fiſh-pond, ſome poſt-chaiſes, ſwords and blunderbuſſes, a few intercepted letters, and a ſummer-houſe at the bottom of the garden—theſe ingredients, mixed together *ſecundum artem*, that is, preciſely as they have been mixed in a hundred novels before, form one of thoſe ſtrange productions which are repreſented by the manufacturer, as 'An intereſting work, full of ſentiment, pathos, and ſublimity;' an opinion which paſſes current at all circulating libraries and boarding ſchools.

The very ſtrong reſemblance there is between one novel and another, is a circumſtance which has induced ſuſpicious and curious people to think, that there is already in exiſtence ſuch a machine as I have hinted at above. But the reſemblance they bear to each other, may be accounted for in another and more probable way, from the poverty of invention peculiar to the tribe of modern novel-writers, and the opinion they ſeem to entertain, that the nearer they approach to one another, the nearer they approach to perfection. Dreadful are their ſtruggles, indeed, when they quit this *polygraphic* manner of writing, and aim at novelty of incident; and ſad is the havock they make with the ways of providence and the works of men. For while they profeſs to exhibit human life and manners, they are not permitted to make uſe of any miraculous agents, as the romance-writers of former times could. The writers of romance, when they found their hero, or themſelves (which is preciſely the ſame thing) in a dilemma, could, with great propriety, change a priſon in the twinkling of an eye into a park, or a ſuit of armour into a ghoſt; they could alſo raiſe ſtorms, or giants, employ dwarfs, fairies and necromancers, and were, indeed, ſo omnipotent over earth and air, that they could never experience a ſituation from which it was impoſſible to be extricated.

But far different is the caſe with our modern noveliſts, who, though they aſſume the power of life and death, have nothing to effect theſe purpoſes with but vulgar agents, ſuch as the falling of a horſe, a ſhipwreck, a boat or a coach overturned, a duel, or perhaps a high fever. Theſe are known to be common incidents, and that they *do* happen in real life, may be proved by the caſualty-liſts of every newſpaper. But that which is common ſoon becomes unintereſting. Moſt people, when they hear of a ſcull being fractured, will know that there are no great hopes of a perfect cure; and as to a ſhipwreck, though very often not fatal to the paſſengers, yet one of two things muſt happen, they are either ſaved or drowned. There is no variety of incident in what occurs ſo often on the Scilly rocks, or in the Yarmouth roads. Far be it from me, however, to ſay, that our modern noveliſts do not deal in the marvellous, although they be reſtrained from employing the aſſiſtance of magicians and giants. On the contrary, their ſingular merit is, that they crowd together three or four natural incidents in ſuch a manner as to form a complete miracle; and this is a piece of ingenuity of which it would

be uncharitable to deny them the ſole merit. For example; a chaiſe is overturned, and a beautiful young lady is very much bruiſed; the firſt perſon who comes to her aſſiſtance, is the very perſon of all others whom ſhe wiſhed to ſee, namely her lover, whom ſhe believed to be in Ireland or Scotland, Bengal or Jamaica; the houſe to which ſhe is taken happens to be her uncle's, whom ſhe had not ſeen for many years, and certainly did not wiſh to ſee on this occaſion; but at the ſame time he does not know her, nor ſhe him; the phyſician, who attends her, is ſo intimate with her father, that he becomes a mediator, and a reconciliation and a marriage follow as eaſily as cauſe and effect. Each of theſe, when taken by itſelf, is no more than happens every day; but, when ſtrung together, they form one of the moſt miraculous approaches to *novelty*, which is to be found in any production of Leadenhall or Grub-ſtreet.

It appears to be the ſcheme of modern noveliſts that, in order to *ſurpriſe*, every thing ſhall happen which is leaſt expected, and that which ſeems juſt at hand, ſhall not take place at all. The hint was probably taken from the practice of Sancho's phyſician, who, when a favourite diſh was placed before the governor, ordered it out of his ſight before he could touch it. The purpoſe of theſe diſappointments, however, is not ſo much to ſurpriſe the reader, as to confound and perplex the perſonages concerned in the fable. The reader, nineteen caſes out of twenty, is let into the whole ſecret in the firſt three chapters, and the conſequence of this has been, that the firſt and laſt volume of every novel are read with equal information. Thoſe learned meſſieurs, the reviewers, frequently inform us that they have ſaved a great deal of time ſince they came to the knowledge of this circumſtance. And it would be equally ſerviceable to readers in general, were it not certain, that it is in human nature to forget diſappointments, and to permit the triumph of hope over experience.

Hitherto, perhaps, it may be ſuppoſed, that I have treated this ſubject with too much levity. The queſtion, however, whether novels have not a bad tendency, is a ſerious one; and though it is not my intention, in the preſent letter, to enter at large upon it, yet I hope to offer ſome arguments which may have their effect, upon thoſe at leaſt whoſe buſineſs it is to direct young people in their courſe of reading.

We may always learn a great deal of the tendency of a book, by obſerving the character of thoſe who take delight in reading it; and the obſervation of this fact will furniſh us with one argument, at leaſt, if there were no other, againſt the reading of novels. If we examine who they are to whom novels afford the greateſt pleaſure, and the moſt conſtant gratification, we ſhall find that they may be divided into three claſſes; the idle, the illiterate, and the young. The idle reſort to them as a means of killing that ſmall portion of time, which is neceſſarily ſaved from the attack of public amuſements, and becauſe they are a ſubſtitute for that ſpecies of converſation, which feeds the diſeaſed appetite for ſcandal and anecdote. To perſons of this diſpoſition, it may be agreeable to hear of the follies and miſcarriages even of fictitious characters. The illiterate prefer them, becauſe they require no effort of the mind, and recall no remembrance of early neglect. The young fall in with them by accident, or by the imprudence of the tutors or parents; and their minds are ſoon alienated from the love of thoſe better books which contain ſolid argument, detail uſeful experience, and convey real inſtruction.

If theſe are the only perſons (and I believe it will be difficult to find a fourth claſs) to whom modern novels are acceptable, we may, without ſcruple, ſay, that their tendency is unfavourable, becauſe no man will long

indulge in any kind of reading, which does not either convert him from his former ways of thinking, or confirm him in his preſent practices. So much may be ſaid of the tendency of novels, reaſoning *a priori*, namely, that they gratify idleneſs, promote ignorance, and debilitate the youthful vigour of the mind. 'By their fruits ye ſhall know them.'—With reſpect to their more immediate tendency on the principles of human action, on filial duty, in particular, and their falſe repreſentations of life and manners; theſe I propoſe as the ſubject of a ſecond letter, ſhould the preſent meet with your approbation.

I am, ſir, yours, &c.

LUCIUS.

SENTIMENTS, CHIEFLY POLITICAL.

[From the French.—Never before publiſhed.]

WAR creates a ferocity of manners. It holds out ſuch objects of glory and ambition, as the moſt unpoliſhed minds may ſeize with little difficulty, and thus perverts our uſeful paſſions by ennobling our vices, and every where ſubſtituting force in the place of juſtice.

The firſt ſtep toward accompliſhing the happineſs of mankind, ſhould be to lengthen the duration of peace, and leſſen the frequency of war.

Contemporary hiſtorians often throw darkneſs on the period of their narrations. So different are the recitals of Herodotus and Xenophon, that every competent reader, obſerving, on the one hand, ſuch fabulous puerilities, and on the other, a moral treatiſe, thrown into ſcenes of action, ſeems, as it were, reduced to a kind of choice between the Orlando of Arioſto and the Telemachus of Fenelon.

The luxury of ignorance is, of all other luxuries, the moſt detrimental, becauſe equally incapable of exciting induſtry, and producing one agreeable enjoyment.

The leſs inſtructed the people are, the more the imagination is liable to be poetical; and, probably, a multitude of barbarous nations have only wanted a fine language, and more celebrity, to have been capable of tranſmitting to us poetical compoſitions, like thoſe of the Greeks; witneſs the poems in the Erſe language, thoſe of the Scandinavians, &c.

Let the philoſophical *literati* ſolve this problem. Why do the poems in the Erſe language breathe the nobleſt and ſublimeſt ſentiments; the ſentiments of love, glory, honour, a veneration of anceſtry, patriotiſm, &c. whereas the ſentiments ſcattered up and down the Iliad are baſe and vile: ſuch, for inſtance, are the deſire of plunder, the low ambition of enjoying the beſt ſhare at a feaſt, the exaſperated violence of paſſion, tranſporting itſelf into acts of barbarous and cowardly revenge, &c.?

All the governments of antiquity, except the great ancient monarchies, of the origin of which we are ignorant, owe their birth to a town, or a city. A little reflection would convince us, that it could not have been otherwiſe. In fact, men were not known under the name of a people, but when they equally enjoyed the ſame laws, adhered to general cuſtoms, and felt thoſe mutual dependencies, which united them, and, as it were, atteſted their identity. Mankind ſtood in no need of laws and conventions, except when great numbers were aſſembled in a ſmall ſpace.

Knowledge is, in our days, become ſo diffuſive, that authors can ſcarcely make any other pretenſions to a ſuperiority over their readers, except thoſe pretenſions which may have ariſen from the labour of having meditated, longer than they, upon the ſubjects concerning which they may have written.

Men have generally diſpayed the

virtues or vices of the Romans, according to their own preconceived theories or prejudices, or profeſſional purſuits. Strabo imagined that the ſituation of Rome had contributed much to the aggrandizement of the republic: he reaſoned like a geographer. Monteſquieu diſcovers all theſe cauſes in the nature of their government: he reaſons like a civilian.

Nothing exerciſes and fatigues the mind more than abſtraction; and this act of withdrawing ſome part of the idea from the other parts of it, has need of ſupporting itſelf on ſenſible circumſtances. Hence it is, that the language of argument is, conſtantly, on the point of running out into a figurative ſtyle; a ſtyle, equally vicious and incorrect, of which allegory is the worſt abuſe. Thus it may be obſerved, that the more ignorant and unpoliſhed a nation is, the more its language abounds with metaphors and compariſons. They are the artful expedients of the mind, to elude that exact definition, which ſo frequently baffles all her powers. Are the principles of a republic to be unfolded? It is compared to a living being. Are the properties of a juſt man to be explained? He is likened to a republic. Thus are we inceſſantly turning round, within a circle of errors, where every thing meets with its reſemblance, and where nothing is deciſive.

The power of fathers is, always, more ſevere and abſolute than the power of mothers. A mother may be conſidered as the chief moderatrix of paternal deſpotiſm.

Riches acquired without toil, and divided among a ſmall number of perſons, introduce luxury and corruption; or rather, every thing is already corrupted, when luxury appears; for luxury is but an effect, erected into a principle. It comes not, until all order has been already deſtroyed; and whether it ariſe from the inequality of circumſtances, or whether it flow from the abuſe of affluence, it conſtantly maintains a ſuppoſition, that there are eaſy and rapid means of acquiring money, and that paſſions exiſt, which are equally contrary to decency and honeſty.

Monarchy, like nobility, which is the ſupport of monarchy, to be reſpectable, ſhould be ancient. From a fortunate experience of authority, and from a ſettled habit of obedience, may ariſe a kind of conſtitution, which, in the end, becomes almoſt unalterable: becauſe there is a point, beyond which the materials of a republic exiſt no longer in a monarchy; while the materials of a monarchy exiſt always in a republic.

A love for their country, popularity, and generoſity, were virtues common to the ancients; but true philanthropy, a regard for public welfare, and general order, are ſentiments to which the paſt ages were abſolutely ſtrangers. How, indeed, could ſuch ſentiments have exiſted among men, accuſtomed from their infancy to behold thouſands of gladiators, mutually ſlaughtering one another, and periſhing amid even the exclamations of the women? Such exalted feelings as theſe could never have animated a people, who ſo frequently ſaw priſoners of war, chiefs and kings, publicly conducted, in purſuance of a decree, to execution, and completing by their deaths the feſtivity of a triumph.

The riſe and fall of empires may be ranked among thoſe events which, although common, do not ceaſe to be remarkable. Inſpiration only could have diſcovered, that the primitive Romans, a vile and abject people, were deſtined to clear the path, which conducted their future race to the ſovereignty of the world. If in the days of Julius Cæſar, a Roman augur had pretended, that his *birds* informed him, that the diſtant deſcendants of the dictator, and his *invincible* countrymen, ſhould be emaſculated, and ſing upon a ſtage, before the poſterity of the conquered Britons, inſtead of being reverenced as a prophet, he would have been ſtoned as a madman.

An ignorant and ſlothful people, knowing neither their faculties nor their

their wants, may remain in ſo annihilating a ſituation, as not even to employ in proper uſes, as much time as might be neceſſary to eſtabliſh them in the poſſeſſion of a peaceful and advantageous life. It may, alſo, happen, that the government, exacting from this people, a certain portion of labour, may accuſtom them to activity and induſtry; and then, the ſovereign, by augmenting the number of days in the year, of hours in the day, which he might exact from the ſubject, would augment, in a ſimilar proportion, the time which this ſubject would employ to his own advantage.

If we deſire to know what, in general, is the condition of the inhabitants of the world, we need only inform ourſelves, whether the number of cultivated lands be augmented, or diminiſhed.

A pious fraud is the worſt of all falſehoods; becauſe, by poiſoning even the very ſource of truth, it expoſes the moſt ſacred authorities to all thoſe doubts which profane writers are ſo ready to caſt upon them.

To act the part of a hypocrite, is a taſk at once ſo painful and ſo difficult, that nothing but the moſt violent effort of patience and artifice can ſupport a long and ſucceſsful performance of it. Let us always be fearful of giving too much to the mind, by taking too much away from the heart. If we enjoy ſome talents, wherewith we deceive others, how many more talents do we not poſſeſs, which ſeduce us to impoſe upon ourſelves? The willingneſs with which we are ſo apt to credit the ſuppoſed exertions of hypocriſy, may, perhaps, ariſe from not having ſufficiently reflected on the nature of the human heart.

Howſoever writers may have been ſeduced by the livelineſs of the imagination, or the ſubtilty of the underſtanding, to queſtion whether the ſciences were advantageous to mankind, ſuch *frequently affected* doubts can be referred only to the compariſon between humanity in a ſtate of nature, and humanity in a ſocial ſtate. In either caſe, it muſt be acknowledged, as an eſtabliſhed principle, that man cannot, in his ſocial capacity, be too enlightened. Placed within a phyſical, political, and moral ſyſtem, a ſmall part of one great whole, his duties ariſe from his relations; and that being will be ſaid to have reached the height of moral perfection, who ſhall have fully comprehended in what manner he ought to co-exiſt with the reſt.

Such is the propenſity of the human mind, that, like a leech, it receives its nouriſhment by adhering only to a particular part. When applying to the reading, the ſtudy, and the explanation of books, books ſoon become all its doctrine, it is wedded to them, it reveres them, and being excluſively taken up with them, it ends by ſubſtituting the inſtrument in the place of the work. He who admires authors too much, finds it difficult to ſurpaſs them, and all worſhip degenerates into ſuperſtition. Thus erudition, though engaged in ſmoothing the path for genius, often retards its birth.

Caprice is to be condemned, when it is the vice of inferiors; but it is much more dangerous when it has infected thoſe who govern. *They* muſt be careful to arm themſelves againſt that impatient temper, which frets at trifling attacks. The fermentation of diſcourſes and writings is inconvenient, but not alarming. Cromwell did not write North Britons, nor did Jaques Clement (who aſſaſſinated Henry the third of France) write political pamphlets.

All traffic, not founded on a free exchange of commodities, is not commerce, but a tribute; trade can have no object except to procure a nation more ſubſiſtence, and a greater variety of conſumptions; to fulfill this object, trade ought to be extended, and, of courſe, it cannnot be eſtabliſhed on domination, becauſe every domination that is too extenſive muſt fall, ſooner or later, and involve commerce in its ruin. K.

A GEOGRAPHICAL ACCOUNT *of the* STATE *of* KENTUCKY, *in* North America.

The flouriſhing Country of Kentucky *has riſen into Importance ſo very lately, that it is no Wonder that the Generality of the Geographers who have attempted a Map or Deſcription of* America, *ſeem either to have had no Knowledge of* Kentucky, *or to have totally neglected it. As we are happy, moreover, to preſent our Readers with every new Acquiſition in Geography, we have ſelected the following Account from a very valuable Work, 'A Topographical Deſcription of the Weſtern Territory of* North America, *by Captain* George Imlay *and Mr.* John Filſon.'

KENTUCKY is ſituated, in its central part, near the latitude of 38° N. and 85° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Great Sandy-creek; by the Ohio on the N. W. by North-Carolina on the ſouth; and by the Cumberland mountain on the E. being upward of 250 miles in length, and 200 in breadth; and is at preſent divided into three counties, Lincoln, Fayette and Jefferſon; of which Fayette and Jefferſon are bounded by the Ohio, and the river Kentucky ſeparates Fayette on its north ſide from the other two. There are at preſent eight towns laid off, and building, and more are propoſed.

Louiſville, at the Falls of Ohio, and Beardſtown, are in Jefferſon county; Harrodſburg, Danville, and Boonsburrow, in Lincoln county; Lexington, Lees-town, and Greenville, in Fayette county; the two laſt being on Kentucky river. At theſe and many other places, on this and other rivers, inſpecting-houſes are eſtabliſhed for tobacco, which may be cultivated to great advantage, although not altogether the ſtaple commodity of the country.

The beautiful river Ohio, which bounds Kentucky in its whole length, is a mile and ſometimes leſs in breadth, and is ſufficient to carry boats of great burden. Its general courſe is S. 60 degrees weſt; and in its courſe it receives numbers of large and ſmall rivers, which pay tribute to its glory. The only diſadvantage this fine river has, is a rapid, one mile and a half long, and one mile and a quarter broad, called the Falls of Ohio. In this place the river runs over a rocky bottom, and the deſcent is ſo gradual, that the fall does not probably in the whole exceed twenty feet. In ſome places we may obſerve it to fall a few feet. When the ſtream is low, empty boats only can paſs and repaſs this rapid; their lading muſt be tranſported by land; but, when high, boats of any burden may paſs in ſafety. Excepting this place, there is not a finer river in the world for navigation by boats.

The next conſiderable river is named the Kentucky, it riſes with three heads, from a mountainous part of the country. Its N. branch, which interlocks with Cumberland River, runs half-way in a W. direction, and N. W. the other half, and falls into the Ohio in latitude 38°. 27'. N. It is amazingly crooked for upward of 200 miles in length. Beſide theſe, Kentucky has the Licking River, the Red River, the Elkhorn, Dick's River, Green River, Cumberland River, and the Great Kenhaway or New River.

Theſe rivers are navigable for boats almoſt to their ſources, without rapids, for the greateſt part of the year. This country is generally level, and abounding with lime-ſtone, which uſually lies about ſix feet deep, except in hollows, where ſtreams run, where we find the rock in the bottom of the channel.

The ſprings and ſtreams leſſen in June, and continue low, hindering navigation,

navigation, until November, when the autumnal rains ſoon prepare the rivers for boats, and repleniſh the whole county with water; but although the ſtreams decreaſe, yet there is always ſufficient for domeſtic uſes. There are many fine ſprings, that never fail; every farmer has a good one at leaſt; and excellent wells may eaſily be dug.

The country, in ſome parts, is nearly level; in others not ſo much ſo; in others again hilly, but moderately, and in ſuch places there is moſt water. The levels are not like a carpet, but interſperſed with ſmall riſings and declivities, which form a beautiful proſpect. A great part of the ſoil is amazingly fertile; ſome not ſo good, and ſome poor. The inhabitants diſtinguiſh its quality by firſt, ſecond, and third rate lands; and ſcarcely any ſuch thing as a marſh or ſwamp is to be found.

This country is more temperate and healthy than the other ſettled parts of America. In ſummer it wants the ſandy heats which Virginia and Carolina experience, and receives a fine air from its rivers. In winter, which at moſt only laſts three months, commonly two, and is but ſeldom ſevere, the people are ſafe in bad houſes; and the beaſts have a good ſupply without fodder. The winter begins about Chriſtmas, and ends about the firſt of March, at fartheſt does not exceed the middle of that month. Snow ſeldom falls deep or lies long. The W. winds often bring ſtorms, and the E. winds clear the ſky; but there is no ſteady rule of weather in that reſpect, as in the northern ſtates. The W. winds are ſometimes cold and nitrous. The Ohio running in that direction, and there being mountains on that quarter, the weſterly winds by ſweeping along their tops, in the cold regions of the air, and over a long tract of frozen water, collect cold in their courſe, and convey it over the Kentucky country; but the weather is not ſo intenſely ſevere as theſe winds bring with them in Pennſylvania. The air and ſeaſons depend very much on the winds, as to heat and cold, dryneſs and moiſture.

The ſoil of Kentucky is of a looſe, deep black mould, without ſand, in the firſt rate lands about two or three feet deep, and exceedingly luxuriant in all its productions. In ſome places the mould inclines to brown. In ſome the wood, as the natural conſequence of too rich a ſoil, is of little value, appearing like dead timber and large ſtumps in a field lately cleared. Theſe parts are not conſiderable. The country in general may be conſidered as well-timbered, producing large trees of many kinds, and to be exceeded by no country in variety. Thoſe which are peculiar to Kentucky are the ſugar-tree, which grows in all parts in great plenty, and furniſhes every family with plenty of excellent ſugar. The honey-locuſt is curiouſly ſurrounded with large thorny ſpikes bearing broad and long pods in form of peas, has a ſweet taſte, and makes excellent beer.

The coffee-tree greatly reſembles the black oak, grows large, and alſo bears a pod, in which is incloſed coffee. The papwa-tree does not grow to a great ſize, is a ſoft wood, bears a fine fruit, much like a cucumber in ſhape and ſize, and taſtes ſweet. The cucumber-tree is ſmall and ſoft, with remarkable leaves, bears a fruit much reſembling that from which it is named. Black mulberry-trees are in abundance. The wild cherry-tree is here frequent, of large ſize, and ſupplies the inhabitants with boards for all their buildings. Here alſo is the buck-eye, a very ſoft wood, bearing a remarkable black fruit, and ſome other kinds of trees not common elſewhere. Here is great plenty of fine cane, on which the cattle feed, and grow fat. This plant, in general, grows from three to twelve feet high, of a hard ſubſtance, with joints at eight or ten inches diſtance along the ſtalk, from which proceed leaves reſembling thoſe of the willow. There are many cane brakes ſo thick and tall

that

that it is difficult to paſs through them. Where no cane grows there is abundance of wild-rye, clover, and buffalo graſs, covering vaſt tracts of country, and affording excellent food for cattle. The fields are covered with abundance of wild herbage not common to other countries. The Shawaneſe ſallad, wild lettuce, and pepper-graſs, and many more, as yet unknown to the inhabitants, but which, no doubt, have excellent virtues. Here are ſeen the fineſt crown-imperial in the world, the cardinal flower, ſo much extolled for its ſcarlet colour; and all the year, excepting the winter months, the plains and valleys are adorned with variety of flowers of the moſt admirable beauty. Here is alſo found the tulip-bearing laurel-tree, or magnolia, which has an exquiſite ſmell, and continues to bloſſom and ſeed for ſeveral months together.

This country is richeſt on the higher lands, excluding the fineſt low grounds in the ſettled parts of the continent. When cultivated it produces in common fifty and ſixty buſhels per acre; and I have heard it affirmed by credible perſons, that above one hundred buſhels of good corn were produced from an acre in one ſeaſon. The firſt rate land is too rich for wheat till it has been reduced by four or five years cultivation.

Colonel Harrod, a gentleman of veracity in Kentucky, has lately experienced the production of ſmall grain, and affirms, that he had thirty-five buſhels of wheat, and fifty buſhels of rye per acre.

I think, in common, the land will produce about thirty buſhels of wheat and rye, upon a moderate computation, per acre; and this is the general opinion of the inhabitants. We may ſuppoſe that barley and oats will increaſe abundantly; as yet they have not been ſufficiently tried. The ſoil is very favourable to flax and hemp; turnips, potatoes, and cotton, which grow in abundance; and the ſecond, third, and fourth rate lands are as proper for ſmall grain. Theſe accounts of ſuch amazing fertility may, to ſome, appear incredible, but are certainly true. Every huſbandman may have a good garden, or meadow, without water or manure, where he pleaſes. The ſoil, which is not of a thirſty nature, is commonly well ſupplied with plentiful ſhowers.

Iron ore and lead are found in abundance, but we do not hear of any ſilver or gold mine as yet diſcovered.

The weſtern waters produce plenty of fiſh and fowl. The fiſh, common to the waters of the Ohio, are the buffalo-fiſh, of a large ſize, and the cat-fiſh, ſometimes exceeding one hundred weight. Trout have been taken in Kentucky weighing thirty weight. The mullet, rock, perch, gar-fiſh, and eel, are here in plenty. Suckers, ſun-fiſh, and other hook-fiſh, are abundant; but no ſhad, or herrings. We may ſuppoſe, with a degree of certainty, that there are large ſubterraneous aqueducts ſtored with fiſh, from whence fine ſprings ariſe in many parts, producing fine hook-fiſh in variety. On theſe waters, and eſpecially on the Ohio, the geeſe and ducks are amazingly numerous.

The land fowls are turkeys, which are very frequent, pheaſants, and partridges *. The parroquet, is a bird every way reſembling a parrot, but much ſmaller. The ivory-bill woodcock, of a whitiſh colour, with a white plume, flies ſcreaming exceedingly ſharp. It is aſſerted, that the bill of this bird is pure ivory, a circumſtance very ſingular in the plumy tribe. The great owl reſembles its ſpecies in other parts, but is remarkably different in its vociferation, ſometimes making a ſtrange, ſurpriſing noiſe, like a man in the moſt extreme danger and difficulty.

Serpents are not numerous, and are ſuch as are to be found in other parts

* What is called a partridge by moſt people in America is a quail, and what is called a pheaſant is a ſpecies of grouſe.

of the continent, except the bull, the horned, and the mockaſon ſnakes. Swamps are rare, and conſequently frogs and other reptiles, common to ſuch places. There are no ſwarms of bees, except ſuch as have been introduced by the preſent inhabitants.

Among the native animals are the urus, or zorax *, deſcribed by Ceſar, which we call a buffalo, much reſembling a large bull, of a great ſize, with a large head, thick, ſhort, crooked horns, and broader in his forepart than behind. Upon his ſhoulder is a large lump of fleſh, covered with a thick boſs of long wool and curly hair, of a dark brown colour. They do not riſe from the ground as our cattle, but ſpring up at once upon their feet; are of a broad make, and clumſy appearance, with ſhort legs, but run faſt, and turn not aſide for any thing when chaſed, except a ſtanding tree. They weigh from five to ten hundred weight, are excellent meat, ſupplying the inhabitants in many parts with beef, and their hides make good leather. I have heard a hunter aſſert, he ſaw above one thouſand buffaloes at the Blue Licks at once; ſo numerous were they before the firſt ſettlers had wantonly ſported away their lives. There ſtill remains a great number in the exterior parts of the ſettlement. They feed upon cane and graſs, as other cattle, and are innocent harmleſs creatures.

There are ſtill to be found many deer, elks, and bears, within the ſettlement, and many more on the borders of it. There are alſo panthers, wild cats, and wolves.

The waters have plenty of beavers, otters, minks, and muſk-rats; nor are the animals common to other parts wanting, ſuch as foxes, rabbits, ſquirrels, racoons, ground-hogs, pole-cats, and opoſſums. Moſt of the ſpecies of the domeſtic quadrupeds have been introduced ſince the ſettlement, ſuch as horſes, cows, ſheep and hogs, which are prodigiouſly multiplied, ſuffered to run in the woods without a keeper, and only brought home when wanted.

An accurate account is kept of all the male inhabitants above the age of ſixteen, who are rated toward the expences of the government by the name of tithables; from which, by allowing that thoſe ſo enrolled amount to a fourth part of the whole inhabitants, we may conclude that Kentucky contains, at preſent, upward of 30,000 ſouls †: ſo amazingly rapid has been the ſettlement in a few years. Numbers are daily arriving, and multitudes expected this fall; which gives a well grounded expectation that the country will be exceedingly populous in a ſhort time. The inhabitants, at preſent, have not extraordinary good houſes, as uſual in a newly ſettled country.

They are, in general, polite, humane, hoſpitable, and very complaiſant. Being collected from different parts of the continent, they have a diverſity of manners, cuſtoms, and religions. As yet united to the ſtate of Virginia, they are governed by her whole laws, which are virtuouſly executed, and with excellent decorum. Schools for education are formed, and a college is appointed by act of aſſembly of Virginia, to be founded under the conduct of truſtees in Kentucky, and endowed with lands for its uſe. An excellent library is likewiſe beſtowed upon this ſeminary, by the Rev. John Todd, of Virginia.

The anabaptiſts were the firſt that promoted public worſhip in Kentucky; and the preſbyterians have formed three large congregations near Harrod's ſtation, and have engaged the Rev. David Rice, of Virginia, to be their paſtor. At Lexington, 35 miles from theſe, they have formed another large congregation, and invited the Rev. Mr. Rankin, of Virginia, to undertake that charge among them. At preſent there are no other religious ſocieties formed, although ſeveral

* Biſon. † This eſtimate, the reader will recollect, was made in 1784.

other ſects have numerous adherents. But from theſe early movements it is hoped that Kentucky will eminently ſhine in learning and piety, which will fulfil the wiſh of every virtuous citizen.

Among the natural curioſities of this country, the winding banks, or rather precipices, of Kentucky and Dick's Rivers, deſerve the firſt place. The aſtoniſhed eye there beholds almoſt every where three or four hundred feet of a ſolid perpendicular limeſtone rock; in ſome parts a fine white marble, either curiouſly arched, pillared, or blocked up into fine building ſtones. Theſe precipices are like the ſides of a deep trench, or canal; the land above being level, except where creeks ſet in, and crowned with fine groves of red cedar. It is only at particular places that this river can be croſſed, one of which is worthy of admiration; a great road, large enough for waggons, made by the buffalo, ſloping with an eaſy deſcent from the top to the bottom of a very large ſteep hill, at or near the river above Lees-town.

Caves are found in this country amazingly large; in ſome of which you may travel ſeveral miles under a fine limeſtone rock, ſupported by curious arches and pillars: in moſt of them runs a ſtream of water.

Near the head of Salt River a ſubterranean lake or large pond has lately been diſcovered. Colonel Bowman ſays, that he and a companion travelled in one four hours till he luckily came to the mouth again. The ſame gentleman mentions another which operates like an air furnace, and contains much ſulphur. An adventurer in any of theſe will have a perfect idea of primeval darkneſs.

There appear to be great natural ſtores of ſulphur and ſalt in this country. A ſpring at Boonſburrow conſtantly emits ſulphureous particles, and near the ſame place is a ſalt ſpring. There is another ſulphureous ſpring upon Four Mile Creek, a third upon Green River, and many others in different places, abounding with that uſeful mineral.

There are three ſprings or ponds of bitumen near Green River, which do not form a ſtream, but diſgorge themſelves into a common reſervoir, and when uſed in lamps anſwer all the purpoſes of the fineſt oil.

There are different places abounding with copperas, eaſily procured, and in its preſent impure ſtate ſufficient for the uſe of the inhabitants: and when refined, equal to any in the world.

There is an alum bank on the ſouth ſide of Cumberland River, ſituated at the bottom of a cliff of rocks projecting over it. In its preſent ſtate it has the appearance and poſſeſſes the virtues of that mineral, and when purified is a beautiful alum.

Many fine ſalt ſprings conſtantly emit water, which, being manufactured, affords great quantities of fine ſalt. At preſent there is but one, called Bullet's Lick, improved, and this affords ſalt ſufficient for all Kentucky, and exports ſome to the Illinois. Drinnons-lick, the Bigbone, and the Blue-licks, ſend forth ſtreams of ſalt water. The Nob-lick, and many others, do not produce water, but conſiſt of clay mixed with ſalt particles: to theſe the cattle repair, and reduce high hills rather to valleys than plains. The amazing herds of buffalo which reſort thither, by their ſize and number, fill the traveller with amazement and terror, eſpecially when he beholds the prodigious roads they have made from all quarters, as if leading to ſome populous city; the vaſt ſpace of land around theſe ſprings deſolated as if by a ravaging enemy, and hills reduced to plains; for the land near thoſe ſprings are chiefly hilly. Theſe are truly curioſities, and the eye can ſcarcely be ſatisfied with admiring them.

A medicinal ſpring is found near the Greatbone Lick, which has perfectly cured the itch by once bathing; and experience in time may diſcover in it other virtues. There is another

ther of like nature near Drinnon's Lick.

Near Lexington are to be ſeen curious ſepulchres, full of human ſkeletons, which are thus fabricated. Firſt on the ground are laid large broad ſtones; on theſe were placed the bodies, ſeparated from each other by broad ſtones, covered with others, which ſerve as a baſis for the next arrangement of bodies. In this order they are built, without mortar, growing ſtill narrower to the height of a man. This method of burying appears to be totally different from that now practiſed by the Indians. At a ſalt ſpring near Ohio river, very large bones are found, far ſurpaſſing the ſize of any ſpecies of animals now in America. The head appears to have been about three feet long, the ribs ſeven, and the thigh bones about four; one of which is repoſited in the library in Philadelphia, and ſaid to weigh ſeventy-eight pounds. The tuſks are above a foot in length, the grinders about five inches ſquare, and eight inches long. Theſe bones have equally excited the amazement of the ignorant, and attracted the attention of the philoſopher. Specimens of them have been ſent both to France and England, where they have been examined with the greateſt diligence, and found upon compariſon to be remains of the ſame ſpecies of animals that produced thoſe other foſſil bones which have been diſcovered in Tartary, Chili, and ſeveral other places, both of the old and new continent. What animal this is, and by what means its ruins are found in regions ſo widely different, and where none ſuch exiſts at preſent, is a queſtion of more difficult deciſion. The ignorant and ſuperſtitious Tartars attribute them to a creature, whom they call Maimon, who, they ſay, uſually reſides at the bottom of the rivers, and of whom they relate many marvellous ſtories; but as this is an aſſertion totally diveſted of proof, and even of probability, it has juſtly been rejected by the learned; and on the other hand it is certain, that no ſuch amphibious quadruped exiſts in our American waters. The bones themſelves bear a great reſemblance to thoſe of the elephant. There is no other terreſtrial animal now known large enough to produce them. The tuſks with which they are equally furniſhed, equally produce true ivory. Theſe external reſemblances have generally made ſuperficial obſervers conclude, that they could belong to no other than that prince of quadrupeds; and when they firſt drew the attention of the world, philoſophers ſeem to have ſubſcribed to the ſame opinion.—But if ſo, whence is it that the whole ſpecies has diſappeared from America? An animal ſo laborious and ſo docile, that the induſtry of the Peruvians, which reduced to ſervitude and ſubjected to education ſpecies ſo vaſtly inferior in thoſe qualities, as the Llama and the Paca, could never have overlooked the elephant, if he had been to be found in their country. Whence is it that theſe bones are found in climates where the elephant, a native of the torrid zone, cannot even ſubſiſt in his wild ſtate, and in a ſtate of ſervitude will not propagate? Theſe are difficulties ſufficient to ſtagger credulity itſelf; and at length produced the enquiries of Dr. Hunter. That celebrated anatomiſt, having procured ſpecimens from the Ohio, examined them with that accuracy for which he is ſo much diſtinguiſhed. He diſcovered a conſiderable difference between the ſhape and ſtructure of the bones, and thoſe of the elephant. He obſerved from the form of the teeth, that they muſt have belonged to a carnivorous animal; whereas the habits of the elephant are foreign to ſuch ſuſtenance, and his jaws totally unprovided with the teeth neceſſary for its uſe: and from the whole he concluded, to the ſatisfaction of naturaliſts, that theſe bones belonged to a quadruped now unknown, and whoſe race is probably extinct, unleſs it may be found in the extenſive continent of New Holland, whoſe receſſes have not yet been pervaded by the curioſity or avidity of civilized man.

Can then ſo great a link have periſhed from the chain of nature? Happy we that it has. How formidable an enemy to the human ſpecies, an animal as large as the elephant, the tyrant of the foreſts, perhaps the devourer of man! Nations, ſuch as the Indians, muſt have been in perpetual alarm. The animoſities among the various tribes muſt have been ſuſpended till the common enemy, who threatened the very exiſtence of all, ſhould be extirpated. To this circumſtance we are probably indebted for a fact, which is perhaps ſingular in its kind, the extinction of a whole race of animals from the ſyſtem of nature.

Mr. Filſon concludes his account of Kentucky with the following obſervations on the happy circumſtances, that the inhabitants of Kentucky will probably enjoy, from the poſſeſſion of a country ſo extenſive and fertile.

'There are four natural qualities neceſſary to promote the happineſs of a country, viz. A good ſoil, air, water, and trade. Theſe taken collectively, excepting the latter, Kentucky poſſeſſes in a ſuperior degree: and, agreeable to our deſcription of the weſtern trade, we conclude, that it will be nearly equal to any other on the continent of America, and the diſadvantages it is ſubject to, be fully compenſated by the fertility of the ſoil.

'This fertile region, abounding with all the luxuries of nature, ſtored with all the principal materials for art and induſtry, inhabited by virtuous and ingenious citizens, muſt univerſally attract the attention of mankind, being ſituated in the central part of the extenſive American empire where agriculture, induſtry, laws, arts and ſciences, flouriſh; where afflicted humanity raiſes her drooping head; where ſpring a harveſt for the poor; where conſcience ceaſes to be a ſlave, and laws are no more than the ſecurity of happineſs; where nature makes reparation for having created man; and government, ſo long proſtituted to the moſt criminal purpoſes, eſtabliſhes an aſylum in the wilderneſs for the diſtreſſed of mankind.

'The recital of your happineſs will call to your country all the unfortunate of the earth, who, having experienced oppreſſion, political or religious, will there find a deliverance from their chains. To you innumerable multitudes will emigrate from the hateful regions of deſpotiſm and tyranny; and you will ſurely welcome them as friends, as brothers; you will welcome them to partake with you of your happineſs.—Let the memory of Lycurgus, the Spartan legiſlator, who baniſhed covetouſneſs, and the love of gold from his country; the excellent Locke, who firſt taught the doctrine of toleration; the venerable Penn, the firſt who founded a city of brethren; and Waſhington, the defender and protector of perſecuted liberty, be ever the illuſtrious examples of your political conduct. Avail yourſelves of the benefits of nature, and of the fruitful country you inhabit.

'Let the iron of your mines, the wool of your flocks, your flax and hemp, the ſkins of the ſavage animals that wander in your woods, be faſhioned into manufactures, and take an extraordinary value from your hands. Then will you rival the ſuperfluities of Europe, and know that happineſs may be found, without the commerce, ſo univerſally deſired by mankind.

'In your country, like the land of promiſe, flowing with milk and honey, a land of brooks of water, of fountains and depths, that ſpring out of valleys and hills, a land of wheat and barley, and all kinds of fruits, you ſhall eat bread without ſcarceneſs, and not lack any thing in it; where you are neither chilled with the cold of capricorn, nor ſcorched with the burning heat of cancer; the mildneſs of your air ſo great, that you neither feel the effects of infectious fogs, nor peſtilential vapours. Thus, your country, favoured with the ſmiles of heaven, will probably be inhabited by the firſt people the world ever knew.'

OBSERVA-

OBSERVATIONS *on the* PEOPLING *of* America; *with an intereſting Account of the* CUSTOMS *and* MANNERS *of the* INDIANS, *Eaſtward of the* Miſſiſſippi.

[From the SAME.]

THERE are twenty-eight different nations of Indians E. of the Miſſiſſippi; the principal of which are the Cherokees, the Chicaſaws, the Choctaws, the Creeks, the Delawares, the ſix Nations, the Shawaneſe, the Hurons, the Illinois, &c. Allowing about 700 to a nation or tribe, they will contain, in all, 20,000 ſouls, and, conſequently, may furniſh between four and five thouſand warriors.

The ſpeculations of curious idleneſs have framed many ſyſtems to account for the population of this immenſe continent. There is ſcarce a people in the old world which has not had its advocates; and there have not been wanting ſome, who, deſpairing to looſen, have cut the knot, by ſuppoſing that the power which furniſhed America with plants, has in the ſame manner ſupplied it with men; or at leaſt, that a remnant in this continent was ſaved from the univerſal deluge, as well as in the other. As this ſubject is rather curious than uſeful, and, in its very nature, does not admit of certainty, every thing that paſſed in America before the arrival of the Europeans being plunged in Cimmerian darkneſs, except thoſe little traditional records, which diffuſe a glimmering light on the two empires of Mexico and Peru, for about two hundred years at moſt before that period, we ſhall only ſlightly touch on that ſubject; chiefly for the ſake of taking notice of ſome modern diſcoveries which ſeem to ſtrengthen the probability of ſome former theories. The great ſimilarity, or rather identity, of the perſons and manners of the Americans, and thoſe of the Tartars of the north eaſtern parts of Aſia, together with a preſumption, which has long poſſeſſed the learned, that Aſia and America were united, or at leaſt ſeparated only by a narrow ſea, has inclined the more reflecting part of mankind to the opinion, that the true origin of the Indians is from this quarter. The immenſe ſeas, which ſeparate the two continents on every other ſide, render it highly improbable that any colonies could ever have been ſent acroſs them before the diſcovery of the magnetical compaſs. The ingenious M. Buffon too has remarked, and the obſervation appears to be juſt, that there are no animals inhabiting in common the two continents, but ſuch as can bear the colds of the north. Thus there are no elephants, no lions, no tigers, no camels in America; but bears, wolves, deer, and elks in abundance, abſolutely the ſame in both hemiſpheres. This hypotheſis, which has been gaining ground ever ſince its firſt appearance in the world, is now reduced almoſt to a certainty by the late diſcoveries of captain Cook. That illuſtrious, but unfortunate navigator, in his laſt voyage, penetrated for a conſiderable diſtance into the ſtrait which divides Aſia from America, which is only ſix leagues wide at its mouth; and therefore eaſily practicable for canoes. We may now therefore conclude, that no farther enquiry will ever be made into the general origin of the American tribes.

Yet after all it is far from being improbable that various nations, by ſhipwreck, or otherwiſe, may have contributed, in ſome degree, to the population of this continent. The Carthaginians, who had many ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, beyond the ſtraits of Gibraltar, and puſhed their diſcoveries as far as where the two continents in that quarter approach each other the neareſt, may probably have been thrown by tempeſts

peſts on the American coaſt, and the companies of the veſſels finding it impracticable to return, may have incorporated with the former inhabitants, or have formed new ſettlements, which, from want of the neceſſary inſtruments to exerciſe the arts they were acquainted with, would naturally degenerate into barbarity. There are indeed ſome ancient writers, who give us reaſon to ſuppoſe, that there were colonies regularly formed by that nation in America, and that the communication, after having continued for ſome time, was ſtopped by order of the ſtate. But it is difficult to conceive that any people, eſtabliſhed with all thoſe neceſſaries proper for their ſituation, ſhould ever degenerate, from ſo high a degree of cultivation as the Carthaginians poſſeſſed, to a total ignorance even of the moſt neceſſary arts: and therefore it ſeems probable, that if that nation ever had ſuch colonies, they muſt have been cut off by the natives, and every veſtige of them deſtroyed.

About the ninth and tenth centuries, the Danes were the greateſt navigators in the univerſe. They diſcovered and ſettled Iceland; and from thence, in 964, planted a colony in Greenland. The ancient Icelandic chronicles, as reported by M. Mallet, contain an account of ſome Icelanders, who, in the cloſe of an unſucceſsful war, fled to Greenland, and from thence weſtward, to a country covered with vines, which from thence they called Vinland.

The adventurers returned home, and conducted a colony to their new diſcovery; but diſturbances ariſing in Denmark, all communication with Greenland, as well as Vinland, ceaſed; and thoſe countries remained unknown to the reſt of the world for ſeveral ages. The remains of this colony are probably to be found on the coaſt of Labrador, in the nation of the Eſquimaux. The colour of their ſkins, their hairy bodies and buſhy beards, not to mention the difference of manners, mark an origin totally diſtinct from that of the other Indians.

In the year 1170, Madoc, ſon of Owen Gwynnedh, prince of Wales, diſſatisfied with the ſituation of affairs at home, left his country, as related by the Welſh hiſtorians, in queſt of new ſettlements, and leaving Ireland to the north, proceeded weſt till he diſcovered a fertile country; where, leaving a colony, he returned, and perſuading many of his countrymen to join him, put to ſea with ten ſhips, and was never more heard of.

This account has at ſeveral times drawn the attention of the world; but as no veſtiges of them had then been found, it was concluded, perhaps too raſhly, to be a fable, or at leaſt, that no remains of the colony exiſted. Of late years, however, the weſtern ſettlers have received frequent accounts of a nation, inhabiting at a great diſtance up the Miſſouri, in manners and appearance reſembling the other Indians, but ſpeaking Welſh, and retaining ſome ceremonies of the Chriſtian worſhip; and at length this is univerſally believed there to be a fact.

Captain Abraham Chaplain, of Kentucky, a gentleman whoſe veracity may be entirely depended upon, aſſured the author, that in the late war, being with his company in garriſon at Kaſkaſky, ſome Indians came there, and, ſpeaking in the Welſh dialect, were perfectly underſtood and converſed with by two Welſhmen in his company, and that they informed them of the ſituation of their nation as mentioned above.

The author is ſenſible of the ridicule which the vain and the petulant may attempt to throw on this account; but as truth only has guided his pen, he is regardleſs of the conſequences, and flatters himſelf, that, by calling the attention of mankind once more to this ſubject, he may be the means of procuring a more accurate inquiry into its truth, which, if it ſhould even refute the ſtory of the Welſh, will at leaſt perform the important ſervice to the world, of promoting a more accurate diſcovery of this immenſe continent.

There

There are ſeveral ancient remains in Kentucky, which ſeem to prove, that this country was formerly inhabited by a nation farther advanced in the arts of life than the Indians. Theſe are there uſually attributed to the Welſh, who are ſuppoſed to have formerly inhabited here; but having been expelled by the natives, were forced to take refuge near the ſources of the Miſſouri.

It is well known, that no Indian nation has ever practiſed the method of defending themſelves by entrenchments; and ſuch a work would even be no eaſy one, while theſe nations were unacquainted with the uſe of iron.

In the neighbourhood of Lexington, the remains of two ancient fortifications are to be ſeen, furniſhed with ditches and baſtions. One of theſe contains about ſix acres of land, and the other nearly three. They are now overgrown with trees, which, by the number of circles in the wood, appear to be not leſs than one hundred and ſixty years old. Pieces of earthen veſſels have alſo been plowed up near Lexington, a manufacture with which the Indians were never acquainted.

The burying grounds, which were mentioned above, under the head of curioſities, form another ſtrong argument that this country was formerly inhabited by a people different from the preſent Indians. Although they do not diſcover any marks of extraordinary art in the ſtructure, yet, as many nations are particularly tenacious of their ancient cuſtoms, it may perhaps be worthy of enquiry, whether theſe repoſitories of the dead do not bear a conſiderable reſemblance to the ancient Britiſh remains. Some buildings, attributed to the Picts, are mentioned by the Scottiſh antiquaries, which, if the author miſtakes not, are formed nearly in the ſame manner. Let it be enough for him to point out the road, and hazard ſome uncertain conjectures. The day is not far diſtant, when the fartheſt receſſes of this continent will be explored, and the accounts of the Welſh eſtabliſhed beyond the poſſibility of a doubt, or conſigned to that oblivion which has already received ſo many ſuppoſitions founded on arguments as plauſible as theſe.

The Indians are not born white; and take a great deal of pains to darken their complexion, by anointing themſelves with greaſe, and lying in the ſun. They alſo paint their faces, breaſts and ſhoulders, of various colours, but generally red; and their features are well formed, eſpecially thoſe of the women. They are of a middle ſtature, their limbs clean and ſtraight, and ſcarcely any crooked or deformed perſon is to be found among them. In many parts of their bodies they prick in gun-powder in very pretty figures. They ſhave, or pluck the hair off their heads, except a patch about the crown, which is ornamented with beautiful feathers, beads, wampum, and ſuch like baubles. Their ears are pared, and ſtretched in a thong down to their ſhoulders. They are wound round with wire to expand them, and adorned with ſilver pendants, rings and bells, which they likewiſe wear in their noſes. Some of them will have a large feather through the cartilage of the noſe; and thoſe who can afford it, wear a collar of wampum, a ſilver breaſtplate, and bracelets, on the arms and wriſts. A bit of cloth about the middle, a ſhirt of the Engliſh make, on which they beſtow innumerable broaches to adorn it, a ſort of cloth boots and mockaſons, which are ſhoes of a make peculiar to the Indians, ornamented with porcupine quills, with a blanket or match-coat thrown over all, completes their dreſs at home; but when they go to war, they leave their trinkets behind, and mere neceſſaries ſerve them. There is little difference between the dreſs of the men and women, excepting that a ſhort petticoat, and the hair, which is exceeding black, and long, clubbed behind, diſtinguiſh ſome of the latter.

Except

Except the head and eye-brows, they pluck the hair, with great diligence, from all parts of the body, eſpecially the looſer part of the ſex.

Their warlike arms are guns, bows and arrows, darts, ſcalping-knives and tomahawks. This is one of their moſt uſeful pieces of field-furniture, ſerving all the offices of the hatchet, pipe, and ſword. They are exceeding expert in throwing it, and will kill at a conſiderable diſtance. The world has no better marks-men, with any weapon. They will kill birds flying, fiſhes ſwimming, and wild beaſts running.

The Indians are not ſo ignorant as ſome ſuppoſe them, but are a very underſtanding people, quick of apprehenſion, ſudden in execution, ſubtle in buſineſs, exquiſite in invention, and induſtrious in action. They are of a very gentle and amiable diſpoſition to thoſe they think their friends, but as implacable in their enmity; their revenge being only completed in the entire deſtruction of their enemies. They are very hardy, bearing heat, cold, hunger and thirſt, in a ſurpriſing manner, and yet no people are more addicted to exceſs in eating and drinking, when it is conveniently in their power. The follies, nay miſchief, they commit when inebriated, are entirely laid to the liquor; and no one will revenge any injury (murder excepted) received from one who is no more himſelf. Among the Indians all men are equal, perſonal qualities being moſt eſteemed. No diſtinction of birth, no rank, renders any man capable of doing prejudice to the rights of private perſons; and there is no preeminence from merit, which begets pride, and which makes others too ſenſible of their own inferiority. Though there is perhaps leſs delicacy of ſentiment in the Indians than among us; there is, however, abundantly more probity, with infinitely leſs ceremony, or equivocal compliments. Their public conferences ſhew them to be men of genius; and they have, in a high degree, the talent of natural eloquence.

They live diſperſed in ſmall villages, either in the woods, or on the banks of rivers, where they have little plantations of Indian corn, and roots, not enough to ſupply their families half the year, and ſubſiſting the remainder of it by hunting, fiſhing and fowling, and the fruits of the earth, which grow ſpontaneouſly in great plenty.

Their huts are generally built of ſmall logs, and covered with bark, each one having a chimney, and a door, on which they place a padlock.

Old Chelicothe is built in form of a Kentucky ſtation, that is, a parallelogram, or long ſquare; and ſome of their houſes are ſhingled. A long council-houſe extends the whole length of the town, where the king and chiefs of the nation frequently meet, and conſult of all matters of importance, whether of a civil or military nature.

Some huts are built by ſetting up a frame on forks, and placing bark againſt it; others of reeds, and ſurrounded with clay. The fire is in the middle of the wigwam, and the ſmoke paſſes through a little hole. They join reeds together by cords run through them, which ſerve them for tables and beds. They moſtly lie upon ſkins of wild beaſts, and ſit on the ground. They have braſs kettles and pots to boil their food; gourds or calabaſhes, cut aſunder, ſerve them for pails, cups, and diſhes.

The accounts of travellers, concerning their religion, are various; and although it cannot be abſolutely affirmed that they have none, yet it muſt be confeſſed very difficult to define what it is. All agree that they acknowledge one Supreme God, but do not adore him. They have not ſeen him, they do not know him, believing him to be too far exalted above them, and too happy in himſelf to be concerned about the trifling affairs of poor mortals. They ſeem alſo to believe

lieve in a future ſtate, and that after death they ſhall be removed to their friends, who have gone before them, to an elyſium, or paradiſe.

The Wyandotts, near Detroit, and ſome others, have the Roman catholic religion introduced among them by miſſionaries. Theſe have a church, a miniſter, and a regular burying-ground. Many of them appear zealous, and ſay prayers in their families. Theſe, by acquaintance with white people, are a little civilized, which muſt of neceſſity precede Chriſtianity.

The Shawaneſe, Cherokees, Chickaſaws, and ſome others, are little concerned about ſuperſtition, or religion. Others continue their former ſuperſtitious worſhip of the objects of their love and fear, and eſpecially thoſe beings who they moſt dread, and whom therefore we generally denominate devils; though, at the ſame time, it is allowed they pray to the ſun, and other inferior benevolent deities, for ſucceſs in their undertakings, for plenty of food, and other neceſſaries in life.

They have their feſtivals, and other rejoicing-days, on which they ſing and dance in a ring, taking hands, having ſo painted and diſguiſed themſelves, that it is difficult to know any of them; and after enjoying this diverſion for a while, they retire to the place where they have prepared a feaſt of fiſh, fleſh, fowls, and fruits; to which all are invited, and entertained with their country ſongs. They believe that there is great virtue in feaſts for the ſick. For this purpoſe a young buck muſt be killed, and boiled, the friends and near neighbours of the patient invited, and having firſt thrown tobacco on the fire, and covered it up cloſe, they all ſit down in a ring, and raiſe a lamentable cry. They then uncover the fire, and kindle it up; and the head of the buck is firſt ſent about, every one taking a bit, and giving a loud croak, in imitation of crows. They afterward proceed to eat all the buck, making a moſt harmonious, melancholy ſong; in which ſtrain their muſic is particularly excellent.

As they approach their towns, when ſome of their people are loſt in war, they make great lamentations for their dead, and bear them long after in remembrance.

Some nations abhor adultery, do not approve of a plurality of wives, and are not guilty of theft; but there are other tribes that are not ſo ſcrupulous in theſe matters. Among the Chickaſaws a huſband may cut off the noſe of his wife, if guilty of adultery; but men are allowed greater liberty. This nation deſpiſes a thief. Among the Cherokees they cut off the noſe and ears of an adultreſs; afterward her huſband gives her a diſcharge; and from this time ſhe is not permitted to refuſe any one who preſents himſelf. Fornication is unnoticed; for they allow perſons in a ſingle ſtate unbounded freedom.

Their form of marriage is ſhort—the man, before witneſſes, gives the bride a deer's foot, and ſhe, in return, preſents him with an ear of corn, as emblems of their ſeveral duties.

The women are very ſlaves to the men; which is a common caſe in rude, unpoliſhed nations, throughout the world. They are charged with being revengeful; but this revenge is only doing themſelves juſtice on thoſe who injure them, and is ſeldom executed, but in caſes of murder and adultery.

Their king has no power to put any one to death by his own authority; but the murderer is generally delivered up to the friends of the deceaſed, to do as they pleaſe. When one kills another, his friend kills him, and ſo they continue until much blood is ſhed; and at laſt the quarrel is ended by mutual preſents. Their kings are hereditary, but their authority extremely limited. No people are a more ſtriking evidence of the miſeries of mankind in the want of government than they. Every chief, when offended, breaks off with a party, ſettles at ſome diſtance, and

then commences hoſtilities againſt his own people. They are generally at war with each other. Theſe are common circumſtances among the Indians.

When they take captives in war, they are exceedingly cruel, treating the unhappy priſoners in ſuch a manner, that death would be preferable to life. They afterward give them plenty of food, load them with burdens, and when they arrive at their towns, they muſt run the gauntlet. In this, the ſavages exerciſe ſo much cruelty, that one would think it impoſſible they ſhould ſurvive their ſufferings. Many are killed; but if one outlives this trial, he is adopted into a family as a ſon, and treated with paternal kindneſs; and if he avoids their ſuſpicions of going away, is allowed the ſame privileges as their own people.

ON SOLITUDE.

THAT man was born to live in a ſtate of ſociety, is undeniable. The fact is confirmed by a conſideration of all the numerous wants and infirmities of human nature, as well as of all that conſtitutes the pleaſures, comforts, and conveniencies of life. It is, however, one of thoſe maxims which, when they have once gained the general conſent of mankind, are regarded as ſelf-evident truths, that cannot be contradicted, and therefore may be laid on the ſhelf as no longer worth examining. And if our duties in a ſtate of ſociety were rightly underſtood, and if men were leſs prone to carry every thing to an extreme, which it never ought to reach, there would be very little occaſion to ſuggeſt what is intended for the ſubject of this paper, namely, that man is not born for ſociety *only*, and that ſolitude and retirement have claims which cannot be refuted, and ought not to be reſiſted.

Poets and fanciful proſe-writers have ſung and ſaid the praiſes of retirement, as if the earth ſhould be partitioned out into ſmall proportions correſponding with the ſtate of population, and each man was to confine himſelf to his part, without any communication with that of his neighbour. They have repreſented ſolitude as the only atmoſphere in which virtue can breathe untainted, and have recommended the moſs-grown cell as the only temple of piety and goodneſs. Society they have as uniformly branded, as being always in alliance with wickedneſs, and in their enthuſiaſtic attachment to aſcetic pleaſures, have denounced a curſe on every place 'where two or three are met together.' It is not worth while to refute the calumny of ſuch poetic miſrepreſentations, becauſe in our days they have no weight, and becauſe the bias of mankind leans ſo much toward the contrary extreme, that to reſtore the proper balance, it becomes neceſſary to revive as much of the love of retirement as ſhall conſiſt with the duties of ſociety, and to limit the enjoyment of the latter to ſuch bounds, as ſhall render ſolitude neither uſeleſs nor painful. The great *deſideratum* of human life is to know how to mix ſociety and ſolitude in ſuch due proportions, that the reſult ſhall be happineſs, order and tranquillity; that nothing ſhall be left undone which ought to be done, and no time left to be accounted for, of which we are able to render no account at all.

There is a familiar phraſe in families, which may be applicable to men too much addicted to the pleaſures of ſociety. It is the firſt wiſh of fond parents to ſee that little maſter or miſs is able *to go alone*, and they derive no ſmall pleaſure from the continued efforts of their offſpring, to attain this firſt period of active life. It would be a much more deſirable thing, however, if, when the years of maturity are come, they learned *to go alone*, without the helps of idle pleaſures, and idle company, to lead them

them on the road of life. It would be well if they learned early to throw aſide thoſe baby ſtrings, which keep the mind in a ſtate of infancy, long after the body has attained that of manhood. When you ſee a man ſo devoted to pleaſure as never to be found in retirement, who is never happy but in a round of company of *any* kind, and of pleaſures in every poſſible variety, and who is ſo much every body's elſe, that he is never his own, you may ſafely conclude that he is one of thoſe overgrown and ſpoiled babies who 'cannot go alone.'

Mira would be one of the moſt agreeable of women, the beſt of wives and of mothers, were ſhe not a determined enemy to an hour's retirement. Her mornings, which commence with what the *vulgar* term *day*, are divided between the neceſſities of ſleep, dreſs, and formal calls, auctions, ſhopping, &c. Her *day* is ſpent in company, either at home or abroad, in public amuſements, routes and card-parties. The ſlighteſt bodily complaint is an affliction inſupportable, from its impertinent interference with ſome engagement, depriving her of the happineſs of ſeeing a ſelect party, and, what is worſe, though a conſequence of the other, confining her to her own thoughts, which, from want of arrangement, have long been a mere chaos or, to uſe the new French phraſe, are in a ſtate of permanent anarchy.—But, alas! how ineffectual is this courſe of life, to exclude the reflections that torment, and the remembrances that we are aſhamed of.—Mira will ſoon preſent an affecting inſtance of the miſfortunes which ariſe from not being able to go alone.

A French writer, whoſe name I cannot recollect, ſays, that it is not every man *who knows how to take a walk* and it muſt be confeſſed, that this is an art not to be learned in the ordinary preſence of companions. Society is, in all reſpects, more dangerous to the mind than retirement; for, if we enter heartily into the pleaſures of ſociety, we ſoon learn to forget the duty of meditation, and to think it unneceſſary, becauſe we may avail ourſelves of the wiſdom of others; but the man who is always borrowing cannot be rich.—In retirement, the caſe is widely different; for if a man does not acquire an extraordinary attachment to it (which is very rare, and not much to be apprehended in theſe days) the love of ſociety, implanted in us by the author of our nature, returns by degrees, and he quits the murmuring of brooks for the 'buſy hum of men;' his mind, in the mean time, having received a conſiderable acceſſion of prudence and wiſdom.—Indeed, any perſon may be ſafely truſted with retirement; but all the dangers incident to youth ariſe from their being left to ſociety without a guide. I truſt that this requires no higher proof than may be ſupplied by a very ſuperficial obſervation.

The leaſt of the diſadvantages which flow from an averſion to ſolitude are levity, fickleneſs of inclination, and imbecility of reſolution. External circumſtances may prevent theſe from aſſuming other ſhapes; and a woman, or a man, may become a ſilly fool, and nothing worſe; but this is not always the caſe. They very often lead to vice, by removing the guards againſt temptation, and by depriving us of thoſe comforts which render affliction and adverſity ſupportable. Nor are levity, fickleneſs, and irreſolution altogether harmleſs, ſince they are the parents of extravagance and expenſive pleaſures, which occaſion thoſe reverſes of fortune, which the wiſe and the good only are able to ſuſtain without deſpair. When we have nothing to hope from ourſelves, the aſſiſtance of others will avail nothing in the hour of calamity.

There are, it muſt be acknowledged, ſome caſes, in which a *courſe of company*, if I may ſo expreſs myſelf, is recommended with advantage. There are certain anxieties of mind, proceeding from a habit of body naturally morbid, or from the remains

of an accidental diſeaſe, in which caſes cheerful company, and a ſucceſſion of harmleſs pleaſures, are recommended with great propriety. Company has likewiſe been conſidered as a gentle, yet effectual cure for certain ſorrows ariſing from tenderneſs of affection, and, with the co operation of *time*, this may no doubt anſwer every expectation. It has unqueſtionably been often found, that on ſuch occaſions, ſolitude will prove hurtful by cheriſhing a hopeleſs melancholy. But it is not neceſſary that what is recommended to one as a cure, ſhould be adopted by all as a diet. Our medicine ought not to be our daily bread; and it may be remarked, that they who, to prevent imaginary diſorders, are for ever taking medicine, frequently contract real diſorders, in which all medicine is in vain. What can a phyſician preſcribe to a man, who is relaxed by a courſe of corroborants?

One argument that may be advanced in favour of temporary retirement is of a nature, which ſurely ought to have the greateſt weight, with thoſe who are the greateſt lovers of pleaſure. I mean, that the more we partake of pleaſure, the more inſipid it becomes, and that when the edge of novelty is worn off, and variety is no longer attainable, we exhauſt our ſpirits in a clamorous demand for amuſement, which none can ſupply, and in a perpetual effort to *create*, long after *invention* has ceaſed to operate, and has loſt its powers. No perſon can enjoy ſociety, who does know the luxury of being alone. Indeed, ſociety and retirement are ſo abſolutely neceſſary to each other, that it is almoſt impoſſible to conceive how they could ever have been ſeparated. Unhappy muſt that man be, who has diſſolved the connexion, for he has thereby left to the ſhort and painful hour of death, what ought to have been the buſineſs of a long and tranquil life.

So well convinced am I of the neceſſity of temporary retirement, that I am inclined to attribute many irregularities and improprieties to the neglect of it, which, in the opinion of other men, are aſcribed to very different ſources. I never ſee an abſurd faſhion, for inſtance, gain ground, without attributing it to the giddineſs and thoughtleſſneſs of thoſe, who cannot ſubmit to a moment's reflection. If any of thoſe ladies, who lately aſſumed the appearance of pregnancy, had entered into her cloſet, and for five minutes had conſidered the propriety of this faſhion, I am perſuaded that ſhe muſt have rejected, with contempt, ſo great a violation of female delicacy, ſo public a proclamation of the decline of chaſtity, and ſo groſs an affront to our ſex, by inſinuating that we ſhould eſteem a woman the better for looking like a proſtitute *.

If I were diſpoſed, for a moment, to admit the abſurd idea, that religion is a politic inſtitution of man's invention, I ſhould ſay, that one of the moſt politic and wiſeſt of its regulations, was the appointment of a day of reſt from worldly labour. By thoſe, whoſe avocations during the week are preſſing, this day ought to be prized, not only as a day of freedom from the calls of buſineſs, but as a day on which they have an opportunity to collect the ſcattered, and arrange the confuſed thoughts of the week, and, by looking backward as well as for-

* As we may preſume (without, we hope, the imputation of vanity) that this miſcellany may, by ſome accident or other, meet the eyes of another generation, it becomes neceſſary to explain this paragraph, by ſtating (which we do with ſome regret) that in the year 1793, ſeveral unmarried ladies of diſtinction wore a piece of dreſs, called a *Ceſtina*, or *Pad*, which gave them the appearance of being big with child. The faſhion prevailed for ſome months, when it raiſed the indignation of the public, and at the time of writing this article, was confined principally to a few ladies, whoſe practice it is to bid defiance to any impeachment againſt their characters, by endeavouring to prove that they have none to loſe.

ward,

ward, ſtore up the treaſures of experience, and accumulate the ſtock of neceſſary wiſdom. Opportunities for ſuch profitable recollection very rarely occur amid the buſtle of active life. Various anxieties and unavoidable interruptions break in on every hour appropriated to meditation; but, on the day of reſt, ample occaſion is given for reviewing what is paſt, detecting error, and forming plans of amendment. Without enjoining the obſervance of a puritanical ſabbath, or preſcribing auſterities that would incur the ridicule of the world, we may ſurely lay it down as a poſition not to be controverted, that the power of enjoying one day in ſeven, apart from all buſineſs, from all that can diſtract, and all that can perplex, is a bleſſing which no wiſe man would deſpiſe, and which no man ever neglected with impunity.

C.

HISTORY *of the* ARE'S *and* SHOULD-BE'S.

[By an Eminent Antiquary.]

'I have uſed Similitudes.' SAC. SCRIP.

THE family of the *are's* and of the *ſhould-be's*, may be traced to the remoteſt periods of antiquity, and their poſterity may be found in every part of the known world. There are few, indeed, of the preſent generation, who cannot boaſt of ſome of their blood running in their veins; but of theſe two families, that of the *are's* claims the merit of greatly ſurpaſſing the *ſhould-be's* in numbers and influence. This is a circumſtance we are the leſs to wonder at, becauſe the *are's* have received almoſt univerſal encouragement throughout the world, whereas the *ſhould-be's* have in general been a deſpiſed people, no where uppermoſt, very little encouraged at courts, and cheriſhed principally in deſerts, cottages, and ſolitary places, where they were either veiled in obſcurity, or buried in oblivion.

Of the origin of the *are's* we are, however, more ignorant than of that of the *ſhould-be's*. The former, no doubt, can be traced back to the earlieſt ages, but wherever we find them, we at the ſame time perceive, that ſome family of the *ſhould-be's* muſt have preceded them; and therefore it is not without reaſon that we conclude the *ſhould-be's* to have the firſt claim to the merit of antiquity. This claim, however, has been often a matter of diſpute; nor can it occaſion great ſurpriſe, if two families which boaſt merits of ſo very different a kind, ſhould have ever remained at variance with each other; the *are's* perpetually contending for their vaſt numbers, increaſing population, and immenſe influence and patronage; and the *ſhould-be's* for their ſuperior origin, and the impoſſibility of extinguiſhing their race, notwithſtanding the ſmallneſs of their number and the ſcantineſs of their power. Theſe quarrels and diſputes have been conducted by every poſſible means, and by weapons of all kinds which the demon of diſcord could deviſe; by open war and the force of arms, by ſecret intrigue, and the operation of ſelf-intereſt, by the powers of argument and the ſubtilty of the pen. But an agreement between them has never yet taken place. The *ſhould-be's*, a people inclined to peace and good fellowſhip, can never cordially coaleſce with the *are's*, who are heady, high-minded, and quarrelſome, and never can be brought to believe that their vaſt numbers are rather a diſadvantage than otherwiſe; as tending to perpetuate the reign of folly and prejudice, and obſtructing the fair and free progreſs of wiſdom and common ſenſe. Indeed, ſomething is to be ſaid for them, provided the pride

of

of human nature may be allowed to plead; for the *ſhould-be's* have too often proceeded by very violent means, and, rejecting all half-meaſures and gradual amendments, have inſiſted on the whole family of the *are's* being annihilated at one ſtroke. It cannot, therefore, be wondered at, if the latter ſhou d reject with contempt a propoſition which, if advanced leiſurely, moderately, and in parts, might perhaps be more acceptable, and leſs galling to the pride of human nature.

But while we thus blame the *ſhould-be's* for their zealous intemperance, and the boldneſs of their demands, we cannot deny that they are a people ſo very far ſuperior to the *are's* in every faculty and power, both intellectual and moral, that in order to ſee them fully eſtabliſhed, we could with great pleaſure witneſs the final overthrow of their antagoniſts, however numerous and domineering. And leſt it ſhould be thought, that in expreſſing ſuch a wiſh, we are too ſanguinary and mercileſs, (qualities which do not belong to the genuine *ſhould-be's*) we ſhall briefly ſtate our reaſons.

It appears that, from the earlieſt periods of fictitious, as well as of authentic hiſtory, the *are's* have been the principal cauſe, and the great promoters of all the miſchief which has happened in the world; and this, in a great meaſure, is owing to the ferocious and barbarous manner in which they have been carrying on war againſt the *ſhould-be's*. They have likewiſe been the main props and ſupporters of all the folly, nonſenſe, and ſtrife, which has agitated courts, cities, camps, and theatres. They aſſume the prerogative of beſtowing all honours, dignities, places, power, and even fame itſelf; which prerogative they abuſe moſt egregiouſly, by promoting the unworthy, encouraging the faithleſs and perfidious, and treating with ſcorn and contempt the virtuous and the wiſe. They have likewiſe aſſumed a ſovereign authority over places of amuſement and peculiarities of dreſs, rendering the former as irkſome and pernicious to the mind, as the latter often are to the body. Incredible is the extent of the evils, which they create in private families, and among thoſe individuals who really mean well, and would perform well, if it were not for the pernicious influence, and irreſiſtible example of theſe people. They are often found to be beyond the reach of all oppoſition, notwithſtanding the fulleſt force of argument and conviction; nay they will often perſuade two people to go out armed, and kill each other, although there be not the ſmalleſt enmity between them. They perſuade grave and elderly gentlemen to become beaus and fops, and matronly and diſcreet ladies to aſſume the airs and dreſs of ſilly girls and babies. The perverſion of taſte, which they occaſion, is truly unaccountable. They often prevail upon men of family to diſgrace themſelves by low company, mean purſuits, and, as a wit expreſſes it, 'to value pedigree in nothing but a horſe.' To others they inſinuate the happineſs which ariſes from poverty, diſtreſs, debt, and a jail.—All this ſeems rather the abſolute want of thought, than an error in opinion; and, indeed, ſo conſcious are they that their tricks and wiles weigh nothing when oppoſed to ſober reaſon and judgment, that of all weapons they are moſt afraid of theſe, and their firſt attempts, as well as their continued efforts, tend to perſuade men of the folly of thinking and reflection; well knowing that if they can ſucceed in making men thoughtleſs and giddy, they have them entirely in their power, and can make them do juſt as they pleaſe.

Such, we ſtate, as the purſuits and aims of the *are's*. But the *ſhould-be's* are a people of a very oppoſite ſtamp. Indeed, it is impoſſible to characterize them otherwiſe than by ſaying, that they exhibit a character in all reſpects the very reverſe of what has now been depicted. They are placable, quiet,

and orderly; enemies to every folly, vice, and impropriety; friends to thought, reflection, and argument, and the chief promoters of the happiness of mankind. Taking them, therefore, in this view (which we are amply justified in doing from historical fact) a question naturally presents itself—How come the *are's* to be so superior to the *should-be's* in influence over mankind, since it is acknowledged that the latter are so much more friendly to their happiness and well being? No other answer can perhaps be given to this question, than by referring to the superiority of numbers which the *are's* boast of, and which in all cases must carry the day, and decide every important question. A majority, whether right or wrong, forms a power which it must be in vain to resist; and it is by commanding such a majority that the *are's* have ever maintained a paramount authority over the *should-be's*. For, although, as has just been hinted, a majority may not have truth and argument on their side, they have always the *power* to decide, and a decision once made, truth and argument are no longer necessary, unless for the amusement or information of posterity, a consideration which never enters into the minds of the *are's*. For this is a characteristic feature of the *are's*, that as they have a sovereign contempt for those who went before them, so they affect a perfect indifference toward all who may come after them.

Another reason for the superior influence of the *are's*, arises from the nature of those majorities which they command, that is, from their being composed of persons of great rank and distinction, who naturally draw after them a multitude, and of persons of great wealth, who have it at all times in their power to command a number of followers. Men of learning, too, may often be found in the majority of the *are's*, although it may be more natural to think that they ought always to rank on the side of the *should-be's*. But it is a trite remark, that we do not always fill the place appointed for us by nature, and that many circumstances concur to jostle us out of it, with which nature and our true and best interests have little to do. The fascinations, therefore, of learning, however perverted, may in some measure account for the success of the *are's*. We might add, likewise, that there is a secret propensity in most men to side with the *are's*, and this is remarkably the case in capitals and great cities. In the more secluded and remote situations, we find the *should-be's* are a very prosperous race, though they are observed to degenerate considerably by travelling and mixing with the great world.

The most remarkable circumstance in the history of the *are's* and the *should-be's* is, that notwithstanding the superiority of the former in all the respects already mentioned, the latter have always been enabled to flourish in a certain degree, and have often stood their ground against the most virulent opposition. This is a seeming paradox, but it must be explained, by reminding our readers, that the persecuting spirit of former times has abated, or has been kept under by good and wholesome laws. This spirit, some centuries ago, would not have left one of the *should-be's* in existence; and, indeed, it is wonderful, that in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, so many of the breed were at all kept up. At present, they are, indeed, opposed and defeated by numbers; but they are allowed to settle, propagate, and carry on a free trade in any part of the kingdom; a circumstance to which we are to attribute what little success they have, and from which we may augur their future spread and favouritism; for there are fascinations about the *should-be's*, which must, one day or other, render them highly popular and respectable.

Something, accordingly, we find has already been done by intermarriages. Some of the *should-be's* by marry-

marrying with the *are's*, have produced the *might-be's*, a very promiſing family. From them are deſcended the *would-be's*, of whom we wiſh it were poſſible to ſpeak as favourably. But the truth is, the *would-be's* are a timid and irreſolute generation; not, indeed, ſo bad as the *are's*, but very far deſtitute of the ſpirit and fortitude of the *ſhould-be's*; and though they may, in time, be emancipated from the trammels in which they are held, contrary to conviction, yet, at preſent, they add no great honour to the family of the *ſhould-be's*, and frequently loſe by cowardice, what a very ſmall portion of *effort* might ſecure to them.

While the *would-be's* (of whoſe good intentions no perſon can reaſonably doubt) were courting a nearer alliance with the *ſhould-be's*, a race ſprung from them, partaking of the qualities of both in a certain degree; we mean, the *ſaids* and *dones*.—*Said*, a progenitor of this race, was remarkable for the excellence of the plans he laid down, and the force of his reſolutions, which were often repeated, and as often departed from; whereas *done*, another progenitor, was as remarkable for carrying all the reſolutions of *ſaid* into prompt and effective execution. When their children united, much was expected from the union of ſuch uſeful talents; and ſome good effects unqueſtionably were produced; but, of late, there has ariſen a conſiderable degree of ſhyneſs between the families, and, bating a few intermarriages of no great note, the union of *ſaid* and *done* is not ſo proverbial, as it was when they lived under the immediate guidance and direction of the *ſhould-be's*.

There is only one other particular in the hiſtory of the *ſhould-be's*, which is deſerving of mention, and this is, that they have unfortunately loſt ſome part of the family pedigree. At what time the defalcation took place cannot now be eaſily aſcertained, but it is to be lamented that there is a very great blank in their genealogical tree. On inſpecting it, with a careful attention to continuity of deſcent, we may obſerve that the whole family of the *have-beens*, a diſtant branch of the *ſhould-be's*, and to whom they were united many centuries ago, appear ſo obſcure, that it is at preſent the moſt difficult thing in the world to trace the preciſe connexion between them, where it began, where it was confounded, and where it ended. This is ſo much the greater misfortune, becauſe, in our days, many of the *are's* diſcover a particular fondneſs for proving that they are more nearly related to the *have beens* than their opponents. Now if they could prove this, which many of them labour much to effect, the caſe of the *ſhould-be's* becomes deplorable. But we are happy to add that, in the firſt place, the *are's* are very deficient in their attempts to prove their deſcent from the *have beens*, that is, by any poſitive and legal proof; for all ſuppoſitions and conjectures muſt be thrown aſide, in a caſe where ſo much is depending. And, ſecondly, there is in the characters of the parties ſufficient internal evidence to invalidate the teſtimony of the *are's*, and to convince us, that they cannot be the legitimate deſcendants of the *have-beens*, although it may be proved, and we will allow it, that ſome runaway matches, or unlawful connexions, were of old time formed between certain diſtant branches of both families.

Having now detailed ſuch parts of the hiſtory of the *are's* and the *ſhould-be's* as have come within our obſervation, it may, perhaps, be allowed us to add ſome conjectures and remarks, relating to the future proſperity of two families, which very nearly divide the world between them. From what has been ſaid of the genius and diſpoſition of the *are's*, it is certain that they do by no means contribute to promote the happineſs and well-being of mankind, that their ſuperiority in point of numbers, ſtanding as it does alone, and without a grain of any other ſuperiority, is a very unfavourable

ſymptom for poſterity. It appears no leſs certain, that little is to be expected from the timidity and time-ſerving diſpoſition of the *would-be's*, nor from the diſtant reſerve kept up between the deſcendants of *ſaid* and *done*. It follows, that as the happineſs of every individual reſults from his nearer approaches to the character of a *ſhould-be*, ſo the happineſs of the whole, of all mankind muſt be an aggregate, reſulting from an univerſal adoption of the principles, character, and conduct of theſe *ſhould-be's*. If there are any perſons who may earneſtly wiſh to attain this character, they will not find it a difficult taſk. Let them, as a preliminary ſtep, ſearch into the records of antiquity for the hiſtory and actions of the *have beens*, and animated by their ſpirit, their virtue, and their perſeverance, let them beware of the falſe brilliancy, and ſeducing appearance of the *are's*. In the character of the latter, they will not fail to perceive a ſelfiſhneſs, which arrogates all merit to itſelf, and deſpiſes the acquiſitions of wiſer and better men, who have gone before them, while it is the pride of the *ſhould-be's* to adopt whatever is praiſe-worthy from any quarter, to be diffident of their own attainments, to collect the experience, and practiſe the wiſdom of paſt ages. On ſuch principles we may venture to propheſy that they will ultimately ſucceed, and poſſeſs an aſſimilating influence over the whole world. If this important reformation ſhould not happen in our time, each individual may at leaſt have the ſatisfaction to reflect that he is haſtening that happy period, and that his humbleſt efforts will not be loſt.

ALL FOR THE BEST. A Character.

TO be fully contented with the lot of humanity, is the privilege of few; to murmur and complain is the humour of moſt; and where there prevails a diſpoſition to be diſſatisfied, there never will be wanting food enough to gratify its voracious appetite. Even of thoſe who are moſt remarkable for contentedneſs, we are apt to ſuſpect that their being quiet proceeds more from inſenſibility than ſatisfaction; and, unwilling to give them credit for a virtue which is wanting in ourſelves, we ſay that the moderation of their deſires, and the want of zeſt in the enjoyment of them, conſtitutes a ſtoical apathy of habit, which is miſtaken by the world, for a philoſophic acquieſcence in whatever may happen. On the other hand, moſt men diſcover an eager impetuoſity in all their affections; they ruſh toward the object with fervour, and without ſuſpicion, and every diſappointment is conſequently encountered with bitterneſs and deſpondence. A middle courſe between extremes is preferable in all caſes, and might perhaps be attained in this, were we always to keep in mind that the beſt of our enjoyments are imperfect, and that all of them are ſhort-lived; that the preſent ſtate was never intended, and therefore never can prove a ſtate of uninterrupted felicity; that misfortunes will come, notwithſtanding our utmoſt caution, and that the caution which the beſt of us can command, is a very feeble defence againſt an enemy whom we cannot foreſee, and againſt weapons which we are not prepared to encounter; that, therefore, the good and ill of life are to be conſidered as indiſpenſable in the lot of human kind, and that we ought to enjoy the former with moderation, and bear the latter without hopeleſs depreſſion. Such reflections, often recalled to mind, and compared with what paſſes every day, within the ſphere of our own obſervation, might, no doubt, in a great meaſure, procure us that equanimity of mind which conſtitutes true happineſs, which preſerves vigour of thought, and arms us againſt ſudden

misfortunes. Theſe, indeed, we cannot avert, but it is wonderful how much the greater misfortunes of life may be ſoftened and alleviated, if we only meditate frequently on them, and familiarize them to our imaginations.

Hilarius is a character of the moſt ſingular ſtamp. He is a moſt determined enemy to all grumblers and complainers, and, as his name imports, is always merry. He literally thinks that 'nothing can come amiſs,' and that 'All is for the beſt.' By a long continued habit of undervaluing vice and misfortune, and by conſidering, with rather a looſeneſs of principle, that the greateſt evils work for good, Hilarius has reconciled every thing that takes place in the world to himſelf, although he has, as yet, made very few converts to his opinions. But his peculiar tenets will be beſt underſtood by a ſpecimen. The luxury of the age is a common, and with many perſons, a favourite topic for cenſure; philoſophers, moraliſts, preachers and poets, have combined againſt it, but againſt all they can advance, Hilarius will reaſon in this manner:

'You complain of luxury; pray, what is luxury? What! but the wearing finer apparel, poſſeſſing finer furniture, equipage, &c. than the lower claſs of people, who do not avoid ſuch things, becauſe they loath and abhor them, but becauſe they cannot purchaſe them. And ſuch things you call luxury, and ſay that they are not neceſſary. There you are wrong. They are neceſſary to every claſs of people. They are neceſſary to the poor, becauſe they cannot live without them, and they are neceſſary to the rich, becauſe they cannot enjoy life without them. Nay, they are more neceſſary to the poor than to the rich. To the former they give bread in all the various manufactories where they are made, whereas their *neceſſity* to the rich, though real, is matter of opinion and faſhion. Who made any of thoſe elegancies you cry out againſt? Not the poſſeſſor, for he has not the moſt diſtant idea of how they can be made. Look at that carriage, and conſider how many hands have got employment in the conſtruction of it, from the wood, iron, ſteel, leather, paint, &c. &c. Aſk the coachmaker how many of the poor he gives bread to, and how many of them he could afford to feed were there no demand for coaches? What are the poor people of this country ſupported, fed, and clothed by? Chiefly by manufactures; and how many manufactures are there which may not, in your ſenſe of the word, be deemed luxuries? If linen were to be uſed inſtead of muſlin and ſilk, or woollen inſtead of linen, if lace were diſcontinued, iron ſubſtituted for ſilver, and common earthen ware for china and glaſs, what would the poor of three-fourths of the kingdom ſubſiſt upon? Not, ſurely, upon your ſage reflexions on luxury. But carry this idea with you, and you will find it confirmed by applying it to every one of thoſe articles, which you condemn as unneceſſary and luxurious.

'But you will anſwer, that thoſe perſons who poſſeſs fine furniture, &c. often cannot afford it, and they are ruined. And what then? They have done good to the community at large; the guinea they did not know how to value, is gone into the hands of one who does know it. Theſe cherries coſt a ſhilling a piece, but the gardener will not ſwallow the ſhillings he received for them. That tureen coſt forty pounds, but the ſilverſmith will not go and give the forty pounds for ſomething, which he does not neceſſarily want; with that ſum he will give weekly bread to forty men. But, forſooth, the owner of all theſe is ruined, and his family reduced to a low ſituation. Granted, and perhaps to the very ſituation from which he aroſe, and the only ſituation he was fit for. If a man by good luck, or ſome luck or other, gains that height which he cannot or will not keep by good management, it is fit that he ſhould again find his level. In the interim, he has been the means of diſtributing a great deal of money in proper channels. The money is not loſt

by

by his parting with it. Here is a family of four or five perſons ruined, as you call it, and here are a thouſand induſtrious men provided for. The harm done is very ſmall, the good done is very great. Money doet not go off in ſteam; what a fool drops, a wiſe man will pick up.

'You aſk me, if I do not think that men ought to live within their incomes. No doubt, if they pleaſe; but it is no misfortune to the community, if they do not. What a pretty world ſhould we have, if every man lived within his income! I think you have worn that coat above a year; your ſhoes are more than half as old, and your buckles are only the ſecond pair you ever had in your life. Now, fancy to yourſelf the whole kingdom living in the ſame manner. What would be the conſequence? Why, ſir, in ſuch a caſe, you would have thoſe men to provide for as beggars, who can at preſent provide for themſelves and their families, not by your aſſiſtance indeed, but by working for gentlemen, who are not attached to threadbare coats, and brown hats, who occaſionally think it no misfortune to break or loſe a pair of buckles, and who like a change of the articles of dreſs.

'You aſk me again, whether I do not think it is a man's duty to lay by ſomething, which he may leave to his family? Every man is, or ought to be the proper judge of what is his duty. That is no buſineſs of mine. But I firmly believe that if every man left his family without a ſhilling, and without the expectation of one, there would be more happy families than we at preſent behold. For what is the conſequence of a man's having it in his power to leave a great deal of money to his family? In the firſt place, as he is wiſe enough to let them know this, they will be very impatient to come in poſſeſſion; and, ſecondly, when they have got it, how is it ſpent? Here I will befriend you a little. Why, it is ſpent in thoſe very luxuries of which you complain; for the ſons are all fine gentlemen, and the daughters are fine ladies. So that you perceive that at laſt it comes to the very ſame thing. He that hoards, is only making up a fuller purſe for the market of luxuries, and the good he would not do in his lifetime, is done after his death in a manner of which he had no conception. You may talk for ever about luxury, but unleſs you prove that the world can ſubſiſt without it, you talk in vain. If you wiſh to reſide where there is no luxury, you may place yourſelf, for a time, in ſome infant ſtate, or riſing colony, juſt as, if you wiſh for innocence and ſimplicity, you muſt ſeek them in the nurſery. No, ſir, luxury muſt exiſt, and the conduct of fools is the proviſion of wiſe men. It is all for the beſt.'

Such is a ſpecimen of that train of reaſoning by which Hilarius ſupports the luxurious manners of the times. In it we may perceive a foundation of good ſenſe, although the ſuperſtructure which he raiſes gives ſymptoms of prejudice and miſrepreſentation. He is no leſs an advocate for reſignation and contentment in every other vice, folly, and even misfortune. If he hears that a young fellow has ruined his conſtitution by a courſe of debauchery.—'Well, ſir, and what is all this? He was capable of no other pleaſures, and he has enjoyed them, and his example will be a proper warning to hundreds. What is he, but a victim on the altar of experience, a ſacrifice to the injured dignity of virtue and common ſenſe? Let his friends lament him; the community have nothing to do with him, You and I have nothing to do with him. Nay, had he lived, you perceive he would have been a friend to luxury, which you ſo violently reprobate. But, you ſay, is it not ſhocking that a fine young fellow ſhould be cut off ſo ſoon by his own imprudence? To be ſure it is. But, if fine young fellows will do as much buſineſs in ten years as fine old fellows can do in fifty, they muſt quit their employment ſo much the ſooner. And you call it ſhocking.—Now, who is ſhocked at it? Whoſe features have

the appearance of ſhock and ſurpriſe? Why nobody's. This is all cant. I ſhould not be ſhocked were you to tell me that all the fine young fellows in England had died at thirty of mere old age. It is the natural conſequence of their mode of life. They received a ſtock of health to laſt, perhaps, for ſixty years, and they choſe to expend it all in half that time. Muſt the laws of nature be reverſed for you 'fine young fellows?' Muſt the kindneſs of heaven be inſulted with impunity by any of our fellow-creatures, becauſe they happen to be 'fine young fellows?' And then, ſir, you ſee that his friends are ſhocked, not becauſe he was cut off ſo ſoon, but becauſe he could live no longer under a courſe of bodily and mental poiſon. If they wiſhed to be ſhocked, it ſhould have taken place in his life time, while he was 'in the land of the living, and the *place of hope*.'

Nor is Hilarius leſs prompt in repelling the operations of grief for the loſs of valuable friends, or relatives. If told that Mr. —— has had the misfortune to loſe his wife, whoſe illneſs was ſudden and ſhort, and who has left him with a family of young children, deprived by this ſtroke of their tendereſt parent. 'And ſo, ſir, you call this a misfortune. By no means. If ſhe were a bad mother, that is, one of your fond, fooliſh mothers, who make toys of their children when young, and fools of them afterward, where is their loſs? And if ſhe were not a fooliſh mother, ſhe probably would have become ſo as ſoon as they had grown up, and would, according to the uſual cuſtom, have made men and women of them before they ceaſed to be boys and girls. Whereas theſe children may now be taken care of by thoſe who have no wayward affections to bias their judgment. Perhaps the man liked his wife, and is now very ſorry. But how long will his liking or his ſorrow laſt? We cannot like that which we have not, and the moſt violent ſorrow is the nearer toward being conſumed by its own impetuoſity. He will marry another woman, and like her as well. The fanciful love of boys and girls is all eternal conſtancy; that of grown perſons is eaſily tranſferable, and why ſhould it not be ſo? There may be a pleaſure in nurſing hopeleſs regret, but ſurely no profit or advantage can accrue from it either to the dead or the living.—Again, you ſay the misfortune is great, becauſe Mr. ——'s wife died young. Now, how comes that to be a misfortune? By her dying young, the huſband is left not *too old* to marry again, if he chooſes; and the children, being in infancy, can feel little regret for one they ſcarce ever knew. Beſides, by dying early, how many miſchiefs has ſhe not avoided; ſhe has not lived perhaps to ſurvive the affections of her huſband, and the virtue and happineſs of her children; ſhe has not lived to a decrepit widowhood, bereft of friends, of children, of all comfort. Believe me, ſir, this is 'all for the beſt.'

The political opinions of Hilarius are founded on the ſame placid ſyſtem of contentment. His friends can never know what ſide he is upon, or rather, they diſcover that he is perfectly neutral, not caring a ſtraw for any ſet of men whatever; and the ſame indifference he entertains toward their meaſures. He hears of war or peace, a battle or a feſtival, a maſſacre or a Te Deum, a defeat or an illumination, with the ſame calm philoſophy. Nothing ruffles or diſturbs him above a minute, at the end of which his compoſure returns. If he hears of a terrible fire, which has conſumed property and perſons, he conſiders the property as inſured, and the perſons as happily relieved from all future cares; and if any other argument is wanting to reconcile him to the accident, it is, that the ſtreet in which the fire took place, very much wanted widening. A ſhipwreck, he thinks, affords ſo much ſcope for the diſplay of the reſolution, ingenuity, and patience of our ſeamen, that without frequent inſtances of it, we ſhould not be acquainted with, and admire

admire ſo much the wonderful perſeverance of men, who brave ſuch dangers in ſpite of repeated experience, and who exhibit the moſt exalted ſtate of human fortitude and philoſophy, by ſubſiſting in the utmoſt miſery, for weeks and months, in an open boat, perhaps, without a compaſs to guide them. A hurricane in the Weſt Indies he has been perfectly in friendſhip with, ſince the violent oppoſition given to the plan for aboliſhing the traffic of human fleſh. 'Why,' ſays Hilarius, 'feel for thoſe who have no feeling for others, who ſyſtematically add to the afflictions of human nature!' In a word, Hilarius is proof againſt all that may happen in this world to himſelf or others.

Some time ago, he fell from his horſe, and broke his leg. This, among his friends, was a ſubject for condolence. Not ſo with Hilarius. 'Wherefore all this piece of work; I ſhall be confined for ſome weeks, and I am as well pleaſed to be at home as abroad; my ſurgeon will receive a handſome fee for his trouble, and without ſuch accidents, how are theſe men, who have ſpent the beſt of their days and their ſmall fortunes in acquiring ſkill, to exiſt? This accident too has reminded me of the ſhortneſs of life, and the ſuddenneſs of its termination, which I ſhould probably have forgot in the courſe of the long and pleaſant journey, which is now prevented from taking place.'

From a character like this, ſomething may be extracted that is valuable, but ſomething muſt be guarded againſt, which in its tendency is pernicious. He no doubt carries his doctrine too far, and if men in general carried it ſo far, the conſequence would be anarchy of principle and licentiouſneſs of practice; evils, to produce which no new ſyſtem is ſurely wanted. But it is rather ſingular that this doctrine of 'All for the beſt,' has lately been revived by the abettors of violence and bloodſhed in a neighbouring country. The vileſt atrocities which were committed there laſt year have been defended on the ground that they were 'for the beſt.' It was allowed that they were bad, but then, they would produce good effects, and that out of them an overruling providence can bring order and happineſs. What greater impiety can there be than thus to make the Deity a partner in the wickedneſs of the moſt abandoned of a mob! What the purpoſe of the Almighty may be in permitting ſuch wickedneſs, we know not, but we know that his unalterable decree to puniſh evil will be executed, and that his vengeance is denounced againſt thoſe, who 'do evil that good may come of it.' This indeed, might be the plea of a highwayman, or a murderer of any deſcription, and might, as it really has been, be brought in defence of the moſt cruel maſſacres that ever ſtained the hiſtory of human nature.

In the character of Hilarius, on the other hand, we may reſpect the contentedneſs with which he bears the leſſer evils of life, and which indeed, not to bear with reſignation, argues a mind as unfit for this world as unprepared for any other. It is wonderful how much the evils of life are multiplied by the cowardice of the mind, and by the perverſities of the temper. Selfiſh folly lays claim to uninterrupted happineſs, and is continually ruffled by trifles, which diſintereſted and manly wiſdom can deſpiſe. Though we cannot attain the ſtate of ſtoical philoſophy, yet, as a great writer obſerves, 'we may very properly enquire, how near to it it is in our power to approach, and how far we can exempt ourſelves from outward influences, and ſecure to our minds a ſtate of tranquillity; for though the boaſt of abſolute independence is ridiculous and vain, yet a mean flexibility to every impulſe, and a patient ſubmiſſion to the tyranny of caſual troubles, is below the dignity of that mind, which, however depraved or weakened, boaſts its derivation from a celeſtial original, and hopes for an union with infinite goodneſs, and unvariable felicity.' CARLOS.

METEO-

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, June 1793.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	30,16	50	54,5	43 5	2	W 1	. more wind
	2	30,1[illegible]	61	58	37,5	3	SSW 3	. hazy night
2	7	29,85	55,5	58	47	5	ESE 1	. more wind
	2	29,72	62,5	61	37,5	5	S 3	. little rain. leſs wind
3	7	29,99	58 5	60	47,5	4	SW 1	. fine
	2	30,07	66	62	40	2	SSW 2	
4	7	30,10	59	61	44	3	SSW 2	
	2	30,11	69	65	40	4	SSW 2	
5	7	30,08	59	62,5	46	4	S 1	hazy. cloudy: gentle rain
	2	30,08	67,5	66	44,5	4	SW 1	. little wet. fine
6	7	30,06	56	61	45	4	SSW 2	
	2	30,03	63,5	64,5	44	5	S 1	gentle ſhowers. fair eve
7	7	29,97	57,5	62,5	49	5	S 1	little wet. fine
	2	29,94	67	64,5	41	2	SW 1	. wind S
8	7	29,89	57,5	61,5	46	4	SSW 2	. little wet: ſhower. fine
N	2	29,95	63	63	44	3	SW 2	. ſhower
9	7	30,08	56	61	45	3	SSW 2	. little wet and more wind
	2	30,05	62,5	63	43	3	SSW 4	. leſs wind
10	7	30,13	54	60	44	4	SW 1	
	2	30,13	64,5	64,5	40	3	SW 1	
11	7	30,13	52	57	47	3	SW 1	hazy. cloudy
	2	30,07	62	61,5	42,5	5	SW 1	. fine. cloudy night: fine
12	7	29,[illegible]7	54,5	60	47,5	2	W 0	hazy. cloudy
	2	30,04	61,5	62,5	41	5	NNW 1	: ſhower
13	7	30,17	54	60	46,5	4	NNE 1	
	2	30,20	59	62	42	5	NE 2	. wind N
14	7	30,23	50,5	58,5	45	5	N 2	. little wet
	2	30,21	56	60	41,5	5	N 2	. fine night
15	7	30,18	48,5	57	44	5	N 1	. leſs cloudy
	2	30,18	57,5	59	40	3	NNW 1	
16	7	30,18	54	60	44	1	WNW 1	: cloudy
	2	30,08	64,5	63	41,5	4	WNW 1	. little rain. fair night: little rain
17	7	29,91	57,5	61	48	5	WNW 1	. fine
	2	29,87	66,5	64	40,5	3	W 2	. wind NW
18	7	29,98	51	59	42	2	NW 1	hazy. cloudy
	2	29,99	59	61,5	39	4	WNW 1	. rainy night
19	7	29,75	54	60	47	5	W 1	. frequent ſhowers
	2	29,72	58	61	46	4	N 1	. little wet at night
20	7	29,92	51,5	58,5	46	5	NNW 1	
	2	30,03	54,5	60	43	5	NNW 1	. leſs cloudy
21	7	30,11	52	57	46	4	N 1	
	2	30,07	61,5	60	41	4	NW 1	. fine: cloudy
22	7	29,79	54	59	46	5	W 1	. little rain. fine
	2	29,83	61	60,5	40	2	NW 2	. cloudy eve. little wet: fine
23	7	29,99	50,5	59	42	1	NW 1	
F	2	30,02	61,5	60,5	32	2	NNW 1	. cloudy night
24	7	29,99	51,5	58,5	46	5	W 1	little wet at times: little rain
	2	29,94	58,5	60,5	46	5	W 1	. little wet at times
25	7	29,93	55,5	61	47,5	5	W 1	
	2	29,[illegible]4	64	63	44	5	WSW 1	. gentle rain at eve and night
26	7	29,82	5[illegible],5	62,5	52,5	5	W 1	. little wet. fine
	2	29,83	71	64	43,5	2	W 2	
27	7	29,89	56	62	45	1	W 1	
	2	29,86	68,5	66	41	1	SW 1	
28	7	29,89	57,5	62,5	47	3	SW 1	. chiefly cloudy and little rain: fine
	2	29,93	65,5	65	44	3	SW 2	. cloudy night
29		29,84	58	63	47,5	5	S 2	chiefly cloudy and gentle rain
	2	29,75	63	65	48	5	SSW 3	. little wet at eve but chiefly fine
30	7	29,9[illegible]	59,5	63	47	3	SSW 3	. cloudy. little rain: ſhower. fine
	2	29,94	66	65,5	42,5	3	SW 3	. leſs wind. cloudy night

OB.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* DISEASES *in* June 1793.

THE ſcarlet fever began to prevail very early in the month, and increaſed in frequency as it advanced, particularly at the weſtern part of the town, but all its ſymptoms were mild; ſwellings of the tonſils and glands of the throat (as is uſual) accompanied it, but ſuppuration very ſeldom took place. The weather being warm, free admiſſion of air into the apartments of the ſick was beneficial, the fever was moderated by it, and the exceſſive debility which frequently ſucceeds this diſeaſe was in a great degree prevented: acid gargles, when the throat was affected, were particularly uſeful; and ripe fruit proved beneficial, by keeping the bowels in a proper ſtate, and tending to check the putrid ſymptoms. The ſmallpox ſtill continued, and was more malignant than in the preceding month; in the natural ſtate it was moſtly of the confluent kind. It is uſual under inoculation to prepare the body for this diſeaſe, by giving mercurial medicines in alterative doſes, from the time of inſerting the matter till the appearance of the eruption, and daily experience proves its utility; yet this medicine has ſeldom been given in the natural diſeaſe: but it is an eſtabliſhed fact, that corroſive ſublimate in particular, mixed only with ſugar, and in a ſmall doſe twice or three times a day from the firſt appearance of the eruption, will, even in the worſt confluent kind, render the ſymptoms much milder, and aſſiſt very much in conducting the patient through the diſeaſe. The *urticaria* likewiſe continued. Apthous ulcerations of the mouth and fauces, were very prevalent, but in general without fever, or any other unpleaſant ſymptom. The hooping-cough was alſo very prevalent, but extremely mild.

A Curious Account of the DRESS *of the different* ORDERS *of* SOCIETY *in* England *and* Scotland, *during the Reigns of* Henry VII *and* VIII.

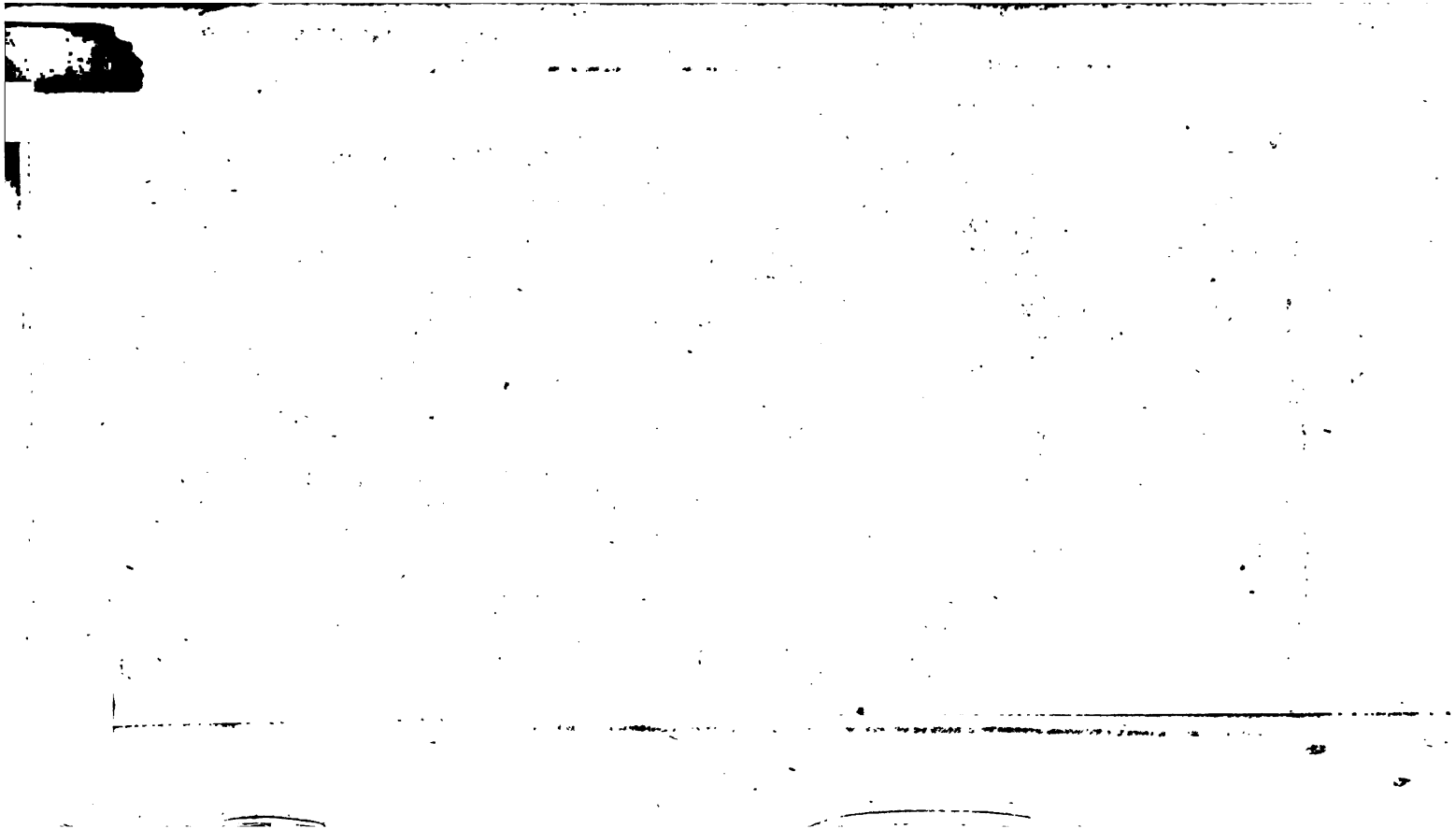
[From Dr. Henry's Hiſtory of Great Britain, Vol. VI, juſt publiſhed.]

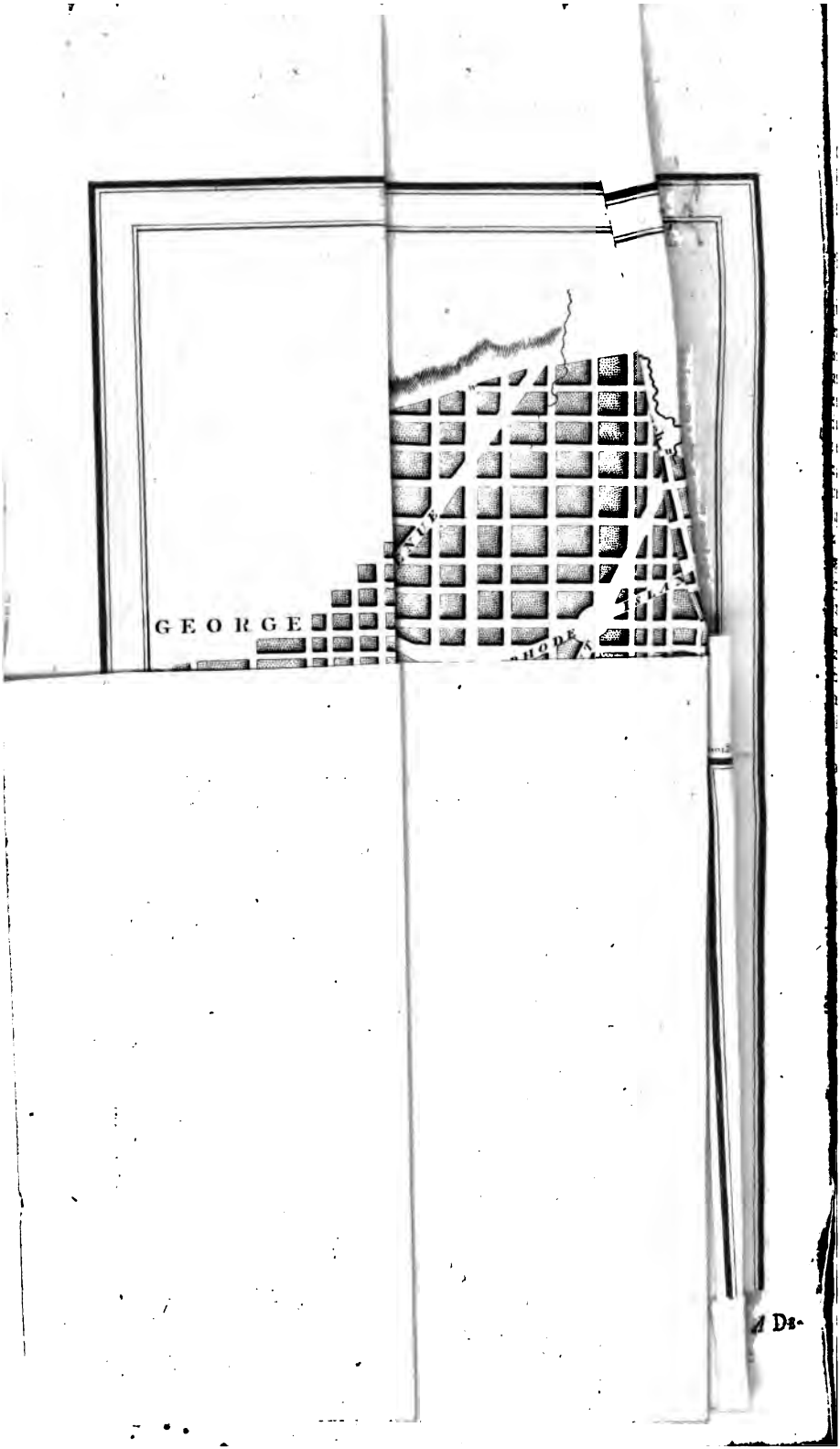
THE dreſs of the nobility during the reigns of Richard and Henry VII, was groteſque and fantaſtical, ſuch as renders it difficult at firſt to diſtinguiſh the ſex. Over the breeches was worn a petticoat; the doublet was laced, like the ſtays of a pregnant woman, acroſs a ſtomacher, and a gown or mantle with wide ſleeves deſcended over the doublet and petticoat down to the ankles. Commoners were ſatisfied, inſtead of a gown, with a frock or tunick ſhaped like a ſhirt, gathered at the middle, and faſtened round the loins by a girdle, from which a ſhort dagger was generally ſuſpended. But the petticoat was rejected after the acceſſion of Henry VIII, when the *trauſes* or light breeches, that diſplayed the minute ſymmetry of the limbs, was revived, and the length of the doublet and mantle diminiſhed. The faſhions which the great have diſcarded, are often retained by the lower orders, and the form of the tunick, a Saxon garment, may be ſtill diſcovered in the waggoner's frock; of the trauſe, and perhaps of the petticoat, in the different trouſers that are worn by ſeamen. Theſe habits were again diverſified by minute decorations and changes of faſhion: from an opinion that corpulence contributes to dignity, the doublet was puckered, ſtuffed, and diſtended around the body; the ſleeves were ſwelled into large ruffs; and the breeches bolſtered about the hips; but how ſhall I deſcribe an artificial protuberance, groſs and indecent in the age of Henry VIII, if we judge from his, and the portraits of others, a familiar appurtenance to the dreſs of the ſovereign, the knight, and

and mechanic, at a future period retained in comedy as a favourite theme of licentious merriment? The doublet and breeches were ſometimes ſlaſhed, and with the addition of a ſhort cloak, to which a ſtiffened cap was peculiar, reſembled the national dreſs of the Spaniards. The doublet is now tranſformed into a wa ſtcoat, and the cloak or mantle, to which the ſleeves of the doublet were transferred, has been converted gradually into a modern coat; but the dreſs of the age was juſtly cenſured as inconvenient and clumſy. 'Men's ſervants,' to whom the faſhions had deſcended with the clothes of their maſters, 'have ſuche pleytes,' ſays Fitzherbert, 'upon theyr breſtes, and ruffes uppon theyr ſleves, above theyr elbowes, that yf theyr mayſter, or theym ſelfe, hadde never ſo greatte neede, they coude not ſhoote one ſhote to hurte theyr ennemyes, tyll they had caſte of theyr cotes, or cut of theyr ſleves.' The dreſs of the peaſantry was ſimilar, but more convenient, conſiſting generally of trunk hoſe, and a doublet of coarſe and durable fuſtian.

The materials employed in dreſs were rich and expenſive; cloth of gold, furs, ſilks, and velvets, profuſely embroidered. The habits of Henry VIII, and his queen, on their proceſſion to the Tower previous to their coronation, are deſcribed by Hall, an hiſtorian delighting in ſhows and ſpectacles. 'His grace wared in his upperſt apparrell a robe of crimſyn velvet, furred with armyns; his jacket or cote of raiſed gold; the placard embrodered with diamonds, rubies, emeraudes, greate pearles, and other riche ſtones; a greate bauderike aboute his necke, of large balaſſes. The quene was appareled in white ſatyn embrodered, her haire hangyng downe to her backe, of a very great length, bewtefull and goodly to behold, and on her hedde a coronall, ſet with many riche orient ſtones.' The attire of females was becoming and decent, ſimilar in its faſhion to their preſent dreſs, but leſs ſubject to change and caprice. The large and fantaſtic head-dreſſes of the former age were ſuperſeded by coifs and velvet bonnets, beneath which the matron gathered her locks into tufts or *tuffocks*; but the virgin's head was uncovered, and her hair braided and faſtened with ribbons. Among gentlemen, long hair was faſhionable through Europe till the emperor Charles, during a voyage, devoted his locks for his health or ſafety; and in England Henry, a tyrant even in taſte, gave efficacy to the faſhion by a peremptory order for his attendants and courtiers *to poll their heads*. The ſame ſpirit induced him, probably, by ſumptuary laws to regulate the inordinate dreſs of his ſubjects. Cloth of gold or tiſſue was reſerved for dukes and marquiſes; if of a purple colour, for the royal family. Silks and velvets were reſtricted to commoners of wealth or diſtinction; but embroidery was interdicted from all beneath the degree of an earl. Cuffs for the ſleeves, and bands and ruffs for the neck, were the invention of this period; but felt-hats were of earlier origin, and were ſtill coarſer and cheaper than caps or bonnets. Pockets, a convenience unknown to the ancients, are perhaps the lateſt real improvement on dreſs; but inſtead of pockets, a looſe pouch ſeems to have been ſometimes ſuſpended from the girdle.

The Scottiſh was apparently the ſame with the Engliſh dreſs, the bonnet excepted, peculiar both in its colour and form. The maſks and trains, and ſuperfluous finery of female apparel, had been formerly prohibited; but faſhion is ſuperior to human laws, and we learn from the ſatirical invectives of poets, that the ladies ſtill perſiſted in retaining their finery and muzzling their faces.





A Da-

A DESCRIPTION *of the Situation and Plan of the* CITY *of* WASHINGTON, *in the District of* Columbia, *in* North America, *now Building for the* METROPOLIS *of the* UNITED STATES.

THE city of Washington, in the district of Columbia, now building for the permanent seat of the government of the United States of America, ſtands at the junction of the rivers Potomac and the Eaſtern Branch, extending about four miles up each, including a tract of territory ſcarcely to be exceeded, in point of convenience, ſalubrity, and beauty, by any in the world: for, although the land is apparently level, yet, by gentle and gradual ſwellings, a variety of elegant proſpects are produced. This territory lies partly in the ſtate of Virginia, and partly in that of Maryland, and was ceded by thoſe two ſtates to the United States of America, and by them eſtabliſhed to be the ſeat of government, after the year 1800.

Within the limits of the city are twenty-five never-failing ſprings of excellent water; and, by digging wells, water of the beſt quality is readily had: beſides, the never-failing ſtreams that now run through that territory, are alſo to be collected for the uſe of the city.

The Eaſtern Branch is one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious harbours in America, being ſufficiently deep for the largeſt ſhips, for about four miles above its mouth; while the channel lies cloſe along the edge of the city, and is abundantly capacious. This river contains thirty and thirty-five feet to near the upper end of the city, where it is eighteen and twenty feet deep.

The city being ſituated upon the great poſt road, exactly equidiſtant from the northern and ſouthern extremities of the Union, and nearly ſo from the Atlantic Ocean to the River Ohio, upon the beſt navigation, and in the midſt of the richeſt commercial territory in America, commanding the moſt extenſive internal reſources, is by far the moſt eligible ſituation for the reſidence of Congreſs; and it is now preſſing forward, by the public-ſpirited enterpriſe, not only of the people of the United States, but alſo of foreigners.

The inland navigation of the Potomac is ſo far advanced, that craft loaded with produce now come down that river and its ſeveral branches, from upward of 180 miles to the great falls, which are within fourteen miles of the new city. The canals at the great and little falls are nearly completed, and the locks in ſuch forwardneſs, that, in the courſe of the enſuing ſummer, the navigation will be entirely opened between tide water and the head branches of the Potomac, which will produce a communication by water between the city of Waſhington and the interior parts of Virginia and Maryland, by means of the Potomac, the Shannandoah, the South Branch, Opecan, Cape Capon, Patterſon's Creek, Conoochegue, and Monocaſy, for upward of 200 miles, through one of the moſt healthy, pleaſant, and fertile regions in America, producing, in vaſt abundance, tobacco of ſuperior quality, hemp, Indian corn, wheat, and other ſmall grain, with fruit and vegetables peculiar to America, in vaſt abundance.

The lands upon the Potomac above the city of Waſhington, all around it, and for ſixty miles below, are high and dry, abounding with innumerable ſprings of excellent water, and are well-covered with large timber of various kinds. A few miles below the city, upon the banks of the Potomac, are inexhauſtible mountains of excellent freeſtone, of the white and red Portland kinds, of which the public edifices in the city are now build-

ing. Above the city, alſo upon the banks of the river, are immenſe quantities of excellent coal, limeſtone, and marble, with blue ſlate of the beſt quality.

The founding of this city, in ſuch an eligible ſituation, upon ſuch a liberal and elegant plan, will by future generations be conſidered as a high proof of the judgment and wiſdom of the preſent preſident of the United States, while its name will keep freſh in mind, to the end of time, the obligations they are under to that illuſtrious character.

The plan of this city, agreeably to the directions of the preſident of the United States, was deſigned by major L'Enfant, and is an inconceivable improvement upon all other cities, combining not only convenience, regularity, elegance of proſpect, and a free circulation of air, but every thing grand and beautiful that can be introduced into a city.

The city is divided into ſquares or grand diviſions, by the ſtreets running due north and ſouth, and eaſt and weſt, which form the ground-work of the plan. However, from the capitol, the preſident's houſe, and ſome of the important areas in the city, run tranſverſe avenues or diagonal ſtreets, from one material object to another, which not only produce a variety of charming proſpects, but remove that inſipid ſameneſs that renders ſome other great cities unpleaſing. They were deviſed, to connect the ſeparate and moſt diſtant objects with the principal, and to preſerve through the whole a reciprocity of ſight. Theſe great leading ſtreets are all 160 feet wide, including a pavement of ten feet, and a gravel walk of thirty feet planted with trees on each ſide, which will leave eighty feet of paved ſtreet for carriages. The reſt of the ſtreets are, in general, 110 feet wide, with a few only ninety feet, except North, South, and Eaſt Capitol Streets, which are 160 feet. The diagonal ſtreets are named after the reſpective ſtates compoſing the Union, while thoſe running north and ſouth are, from the capitol eaſtward, named, Eaſt Firſt Street, Eaſt Second Street, &c. and thoſe weſt of it are in the ſame manner called Weſt Firſt Street, Weſt Second Street, &c. thoſe running eaſt and weſt are from the capitol northward named, North A Street, North B Street, &c. and thoſe ſouth of it are called South A Street, South B Street, &c.

The ſquares, or diviſions of the city, amount to 1150. The rectangular ſquares generally contain from three to ſix acres, and are divided into lots of from forty to eighty feet in front, and their depth, from about 110 to 300 feet, according to the ſize of the ſquare.

The irregular diviſions produced by the diagonal ſtreets are ſome of them ſmall, but generally in valuable ſituations. Their acute points are all to be cut off at forty feet, ſo that no houſe in the city will have an acute corner. The lots in theſe irregular ſquares will all turn at a right angle with the reſpective ſtreets, although the backs of the houſes upon them will not ſtand parallel to one another; which is a matter of no conſequence.

By the rules declared and publiſhed by the preſident of the United States, for regulating the buildings within the city, all houſes muſt be of ſtone or brick: their walls muſt be parallel to the ſtreets, and either placed immediately upon them, or withdrawn therefrom at pleaſure. The walls of all houſes upon ſtreets 160 feet wide muſt be at leaſt thirty feet high.

The area for the capitol (or houſe for the legiſlative bodies) is ſituated upon the moſt beautiful eminence in the city, about a mile from the Eaſtern Branch, and not much more from the Potomac, commanding a full view of every part of the city, as well as a conſiderable extent of the country around. The preſident's houſe will ſtand upon a riſing ground, not far from the banks of the Potomac, poſſeſſing a delightful water proſpect, with a commanding view of the capi-

tol,

tol, and ſome other material parts of the city.

Due ſouth from the preſident's houſe, and due weſt from the capitol, run two great pleaſure parks or malls, which interſect and terminate upon the banks of the Potomac, and are to be ornamented at the ſides by a variety of elegant buildings, houſes for foreign miniſters, &c.

Interſperſed through the city, where the moſt material ſtreets croſs each other, are a variety of open areas, formed in various regular figures, which in great cities are extremely uſeful and ornamental.

Fifteen of the beſt of theſe areas are to be appropriated to the different ſtates compoſing the Union; not only to bear their reſpective names, but as proper places for them to erect ſtatues, obeliſks, or columns, to the memory of their favourite eminent men. Upon the ſmall eminence, where a line due weſt from the capitol, and due ſouth from the preſident's houſe, would interſect, is to be erected an equeſtrian ſtatue of General Waſhington, now preſident of the United States.—The building where Maſſachuſſets and Georgia ſtreets meet, is intended for a Marine hoſpital, with its gardens.

The area at the ſouth end of Eaſt Eight Street is for the general exchange, its public walks, &c.—The broad black line, which runs along part of North B Street, and, ſeparating, joins the Eaſtern Branch at two places, is a canal, which is to be eighty feet wide, and eight feet deep. The area, where South G Street croſſes the canal, is intended to contain a city hall, and a baſon of water; there being now a very large ſpring in the middle of it.

The area, at the junction of the rivers, is for a fort, magazines, and arſenals.

At the eaſt end of Eaſt Capitol Street is to be a bridge, and the preſent ferry is at the lower end of Kentucky Street, where the great road now croſſes the Eaſtern Branch.—The Tyber, which is the principal ſtream that paſſes through the city, is to be collected in a grand reſervoir beſide the capitol, whence it will be carried in pipes to different parts of the city; while its ſurplus water will fall down in beautiful caſcades, through the public gardens weſt of the capitol, into the canal.—In various parts of the city places are allotted for market houſes, churches, colleges, theatres, &c.

The preſident of the United States, in locating the ſeat of the city, prevailed upon the proprietors of the ſoil to cede a certain portion of the lots in every ſituation, to be ſold by his direction, and the proceeds to be ſolely applied to the public buildings, and other works of public utility within the city. This grant will produce about 15000 lots, and will be ſufficient, not only to erect the public buildings, but to dig the canal, conduct water through the city, and to pave and light the ſtreets, which will ſave a heavy tax that ariſes in other cities, and conſequently render the lots conſiderably more valuable.

The grants of money made by Virginia and Maryland, being hitherto ſufficient, few of the public lots have yet been ſold; but a ſale is advertiſed to commence on the 17th day of September next.

In January laſt, moſt of the ſtreets were run, and the ſquares divided into lots. The canal was partly dug, and the greateſt part of the materials provided for the public buildings, which are to be entirely of freeſtone poliſhed, and are now carrying on with all poſſible expedition.—Laſt ſummer ſeveral private houſes were erected, and a great many proprietors of lots were then preparing to build the enſuing ſummer.

SELECT PASSAGES FROM SHAKSPEARE.

NUMBER XIX.

ROMEO AND JULIET.

Love.

Benvolio.

ALAS, that Love, ſo gentle in his view,
Should be ſo tyrannous and rough in proof!

Romeo. O Love!
O any thing, of nothing firſt create!
O heavy lightneſs! ſerious vanity!
Miſhapen chaos of well-ſeeming forms!
Feather of lead, bright ſmoke, cold fire, ſick health!
Still waking ſleep, that is not what it is!
This love feel I—
Love is a ſmoke rais'd with the fume of ſighs;
Being purg'd, a fire ſparkling in lovers eyes*;
Being vex'd, a ſea nouriſh'd with lovers tears:
What is it elſe? a madneſs moſt diſcreet,
A choking gall, and a preſerving ſweet.

In the above deſcription of a paſſion, which, with reſpect to the generality of mankind, frames the happineſs or miſery of life, Shakſpeare has judiciouſly noticed the extreme contrarieties it exhibits. Love is certainly a paſſion that has more prevalent ſenſations of pleaſure and pain, and affects the mind with a greater diverſity of impreſſions than any other. Longinus, ſpeaking of a celebrated Greek ode, attributes its beauty to the ſkilful choice of thoſe circumſtances, which are the conſtant, though ſurpriſing attendants upon love; and the obſervation of this illuſtrious critic could never be applied with greater propriety than to this paſſage from Shakſpeare. The qualities of love are certainly very proper for the management of a good poet; and our great painter of nature has ſhewn it, in almoſt all its degrees, in one or other of his plays.

Dreams.

Mercutio. O, then, I ſee, queen Mab hath been with you.
She is the fairies midwife; and ſhe comes
In ſhape no bigger than an agat-ſtone
On the fore-finger of an alderman,
Drawn with a team of little atomies
Athwart men's noſes as they lie aſleep:
Her waggon ſpokes made of long ſpinners legs;
The cover, of the wings of graſhoppers;
The traces, of the ſmalleſt ſpider's web;
The collars, of the moonſhine's wat'ry beams:
Her whip, of cricket's bone; the laſh, of film;
Her waggoner, a ſmall grey-coated gnat,
Not half ſo big as a round little worm
Prickt from the lazy finger of a maid:
Her chariot is an empty hazel-nut,
Made by the joiner ſquirrel, or old grub,
Time out of mind the fairies coachmakers,
And in this ſtate ſhe gallops, night by night,
Through lovers brains, and then they dream of love:
On courtiers knees, that dream on court'ſies ſtraight:
O'er lawyers fingers, who ſtraight dream on fees:
O'er ladies lips, who ſtraight on kiſſes dream;
Which oft the angry Mab with bliſters plagues,
Becauſe their breaths with ſweet-meats tainted are.
Sometimes ſhe gallops o'er a courtiers noſe,
And then dreams he of ſmelling out a ſuit:
And ſometimes comes ſhe with a tithe pig's tail,
Tickling a parſon's noſe as he lies aſleep,
Then dreams he of another benefice:
Sometimes ſhe driveth o'er a ſoldier's neck,
And then dreams he of cutting foreign throats,
Of breaches, ambuſcadoes, Spaniſh blades,

* The author may mean being *purged of ſmoke*, but it is, perhaps, a meaning never given to the word in any other place. A better reading might be, *being urged*, that is, being excited and enforced. To *urge* the fire is the technical term.

Of

Of healths five fathom deep; and then anon
Drums in his ear; at which he ſtarts, and wakes;
And, being thus frighted, ſwears a prayer or two,
And ſleeps again ——
Romeo. Peace, peace, Mercutio, peace;
Thou talk'ſt of nothing,
Mercutio. True, I talk of dreams;
Which are the children of an idle brain,
Begot of nothing but vain fantaſy;
Which is as thin of ſubſtance as the air;
And more inconſtant than the wind, who wooes
Even now the frozen boſom of the north,
And, being anger'd, puffs away from thence,
Turning his face to the dew-dropping ſouth.

Shakſpeare, in this paſſage, is at once poetical and philoſophical. While he amuſes us with the vagaries of his preternatural beings, his gay and ſportive fairies, he inculcates the philoſophical notion, which Ariſtotle expreſſed of old, that a dream is only the φαντασμα, or *appearance* of things, excited in the mind, and remaining after the objects are removed; in a word, the imaginations or reveries of ſleeping men, deducible, in particular, from the impreſſions and ideas lately received, and upon which they were the moſt recently and earneſtly intent. Lucretius and Petronius had both preceded our immortal bard in a deſcription of the effects of dreams on different kinds of perſons; but both the paſſages to which I allude ſerve only to ſhow the ſuperiority of Shakſpeare's boundleſs genius *.

The expreſſion '*ſmelling out a ſuit*,' in this paſſage, might appear, at firſt ſight, to belong more properly to the dream of a *lawyer* than to that of a *courtier*, and, accordingly, in ſome modern editions, the lawyer is ſubſtituted for the courtier. But Warburton has very well explained it, by obſerving, that, in our author's time, a court ſolicitation was ſimply called a *ſuit*; and a proceſs, a *ſuit at law*, to diſtinguiſh it from the other. 'The king,' ſays the anonymous contemporary writer of the life of ſir William Cecil, 'called him [Sir William Cecil] and, after long talk with him, being much delighted with his anſwers, willed his father to *find* [that is, *ſmell out*] a *ſuit* for him. Whereupon he became *ſuitor* for the reverſion of the Cuſtos Brevium office in the Common Pleas: which the king willingly granted, being the firſt *ſuit* he had in his life.'

Ancient Cuſtom.

Firſt Servant. Where's Potpan, that he helps not take away? He ſhift a trencher! he ſcrape a trencher!

The ſimplicity of remote times may be often adduced, as a very curious and ſtriking contraſt to the luxury and refinement of the preſent. 'To ſcrape a *trencher*,' in the houſe of a nobleman, would now have a very uncouth ſound; but, in the time of Shakſpeare, trenchers were ſtill uſed by perſons of good faſhion. In the houſehold book of the earls of Northumberland, compiled at the beginning of the ſame century, it appears that they were common to the tables of the firſt nobility. They were common even in the time of Charles I.—In many public ſocieties, they continued common much longer, particularly in colleges and inns of court, and they are ſtill retained at Lincoln's Inn.

Beauty.

Romeo. O, ſhe doth teach the torches to burn bright!
It ſeems ſhe hangs upon the cheek of night,
Like a rich jewel in an Ethiop's ear:
Beauty too rich for uſe, for earth too dear!
So ſhews a ſnowy dove trooping with crows,
As yonder lady o'er her fellows ſhows.

* See the Contemplative Philoſopher, No. XL. on Dreams, in the Univerſal Magazine, November 1788.

This

This ſpeech is perfectly in character with the youthful, the ardent, the impaſſioned Romeo. As a poetical paſſage, we derive that pleaſure from it, which reſults from imagery ſtrongly and beautifully contraſted.

Courtſhip.

Romeo. But, ſoft! what light through yonder window breaks!
It is the eaſt, and Juliet is the ſun!
Ariſe, fair ſun, and kill the envious moon,
Who is already ſick and pale with grief,
That thou her maid art far more fair than ſhe:
Be not her maid *, ſince ſhe is envious;
Her veſtal livery is but ſick and green,
And none but fools do wear it; caſt it off.
It is my lady; O, it is my love:
O, that ſhe knew ſhe were!
She ſpeaks, yet ſhe ſays nothing: what of that?
Her eye diſcourſes, I will anſwer it.
I am too bold, 'tis not to me ſhe ſpeaks:
Two of the faireſt ſtars in all the heavens,
Having ſome buſineſs, do entreat her eyes
To twinkle in their ſpheres till they return.
What if her eyes were there, they in her head?
The brightneſs of her cheek would ſhame thoſe ſtars,
As daylight doth a lamp; her eye in heaven
Would through the airy region ſtream ſo bright,
That birds would ſing, and think it were not night.
See, how ſhe leans her cheek upon her hand!
O, that I were a glove upon that hand,
That I might touch that cheek!

Romeo having climbed over the wall of Capulet's garden, perceives Juliet at a window, talking to herſelf, and ſoon diſcovers her to be the beautiful object of whom he was ſo enamoured at the maſked entertainment given by her father. This produces the ſpeech above, ſo replete with youthful ardour. When he hears Juliet, who was equally enamoured of him, utter to herſelf, 'Ah me!' he breaks out again into this empaſſioned and poetical effuſion:

She ſpeaks:
O, ſpeak again, bright angel! for thou art
As glorious to this night †, being o'er my head,
As is a winged meſſenger of heaven
Unto the white-upturned wondering eyes
Of mortals, that fall back to gaze on him,
When he beſtrides the lazy-pacing clouds,
And ſails upon the boſom of the air.

The reader will recollect what follows, when Juliet, imagining herſelf alone, laments that her lover was of the family of Montague, between which and her own, ſuch an irreconcileable hatred ſubſiſted:

O Romeo, Romeo! wherefore art thou Romeo! &c.

When Juliet finds that ſhe had unwittingly declared her paſſion to her lover, ſhe thus expreſſes her tenderneſs, and, at the ſame time her ſenſe of virgin delicacy, with a certain ſimplicity of ingenuouſneſs that is wonderfully intereſting:

Thou know'ſt the maſk of night is on my face;
Elſe would a maiden bluſh bepaint my cheek,
For that which thou haſt heard me ſpeak to night.
Fain would I dwell on form, fain, fain deny
What I have ſpoke. But farewell compliment!
Doſt thou love me? I know, thou wilt ſay—Ay;
And I will take thy word: yet, if thou ſwear'ſt,
Thou may'ſt prove falſe: at lovers perjuries,
They ſay, Jove laughs. O gentle Romeo,
If thou doſt love, pronounce it faithfully:
Or if thou think'ſt I am too quickly won,
I'll frown, and be perverſe, and ſay thee nay,
So thou wilt woo; but, elſe, not for the world.

* Be not a votary to the Moon, to Diana.
† That is, *as glorious an appearance in this dark night, &c.*

In

In truth, fair Montague, I am too fond;
And therefore thou may'ſt think my haviour light:
But truſt me, gentleman, I'll prove more true,
Than thoſe that have more cunning to be ſtrange.
I ſhould have been more ſtrange, I muſt confeſs,
But that thou overheard'ſt, ere I was ware,
My love's true paſſion: therefore pardon me;
And not impute this yielding to light love,
Which the dark night hath ſo diſcovered.
Rom. Lady, by yonder bleſſed moon I ſwear,
That tips with ſilver all theſe fruit tree tops—
Juliet. O, ſwear not by the moon, the inconſtant moon,
That monthly changes in her circled orb,
Leſt that thy love prove likewiſe variable.

An ingenious female critic ſeems apprehenſive, that her readers would require ſome apology to be made for the quick conception of paſſion in the character of Juliet. 'Love conceived at firſt ſight,' ſhe obſerves, 'is the ſubject of moſt romances; and the philoſophy of theſe northern climes looks for it only there; but if we conſult the volume of nature more at large, we ſhall find that ſuch extempore paſſions are not infrequent in the more ſouthern regions of the world: and the clear and warm air of Italy communicates a briſker motion to the heart and ſpirits, than our natural phlegm can poſſibly be ſenſible of *.'

Raſh Engagements.

Juliet. Well, do not ſwear: although I joy in thee,
I have no joy of this contract to-night:
It is too raſh, too unadviſ'd, too ſudden;
Too like the lightning, which doth ceaſe to be,
Ere one can ſay—It lightens. Sweet, good night!
This bud of love, by ſummer's ripening breath,
May prove a beauteous flower when next we meet.
Good night, good night! as ſweet repoſe and reſt
Come to thy heart, as that within my breaſt!

Mrs. Griffith has obſerved, that the ſubſequent cataſtrophe of the two lovers 'ſeems intended as a kind of moral, as well as poetical juſtice, for their having ventured upon an unweighed engagement together, without the concurrence and conſent of their parents.' Juliet ſeems to be ſomewhat conſcious of this, in the beginning of the above ſpeech, although ſhe ſoon forgets the reflection. But the moral that Shakſpeare meant to inculcate, was, that the two rival families were puniſhed for their enmity, and for their wickedneſs in having entailed family feuds and reſentments from generation to generation. Thus, in the laſt ſcene, the Prince ſays,

See, what a ſcourge is laid upon your hate,
That heaven finds means to kill your joys with love!
And I, for winking at your diſcords too,
Have loſt a brace of kinſmen: *all are puniſh'd.*

Doubts of Rapture.

Romeo. O bleſſed, bleſſed night! I am afeard,
Being in night, all this is but a dream,
Too flattering-ſweet to be ſubſtantial.

It is needleſs to comment on this paſſage. Indeed, the elegance and natural ſimplicity of this courtſhip ſcene throughout, muſt render it particularly intereſting to every reader, who has any taſte for tenderneſs, delicacy, and ſincere affection.

Reflections on the Qualities of Herbs.

Friar Lawrence. The grey-ey'd morn ſmiles on the frowning night,
Checkering the eaſtern clouds with ſtreaks of light;

* Mrs. Griffith's Morality of Shakſpeare's Drama Illuſtrated, page 136.

And

And flecked * darkneſs like a drunkard reels
From forth day's path, and Titan's fiery wheels:
Now ere the ſun advance his burning eye,
The day to cheer, and night's dank dew to dry,
I muſt up-fill this oſier cage of ours
With baleful weeds and precious-juiced flowers.
The earth, that's nature's mother is her tomb;
What is her burying grave, that is her womb;
And from her womb, children of different kind
We ſucking on her natural boſom find;
Many for many virtues excellent,
None but for ſome, and yet all different.
O, mickle is the powerful grace, that lies
In herbs, plants, ſtones, and their true qualities:
For nought ſo vile that on the earth doth live,
But to the earth † ſome ſpecial good doth give;
Nor aught ſo good, but, ſtrain'd from that fair uſe,
Revolts from true birth, ſtumbling on abuſe:
Virtue itſelf turns vice, being miſapply'd;
And vice ſometimes by action dignify'd.
Within the infant rind of this ſmall flower
Poiſon hath reſidence, and med'cine power:
For this, being ſmelt, with that part ‡ cheers each part;
Being taſted, ſlays all ſenſes with the heart.
Two ſuch oppoſing foes encamp them ſtill
In man as well as herbs, grace and rude will;
And, where the worſer is predominant
Full ſoon the canker death eats up that plant.

This ſpeech affords a very natural introduction to the ſleepy potion, with which Friar Lawrence furniſhed Juliet, in Act IV; and the allegory, drawn from a compariſon of the qualities of herbs with the nature of man, is juſt, ingenious, and poetical.

Violent Delights not laſting.

Friar. Theſe violent delights have violent ends,
And in their triumph die; like fire and powder,
Which, as they kiſs, conſume. The ſweeteſt honey
Is loathſome in its own deliciouſneſs,
And in the taſte confounds the appetite:
Therefore, love moderately; long love doth ſo;
Too ſwift arrives as tardy as too ſlow.

Moderation in our expectations and enjoyments is here finely recommended. The laſt line too is an excellent leſſon againſt precipitation, which is often productive of miſhap; and the obſervation is extremely juſt, that he that travels too faſt is as long before he comes to the end of his journey, as he that travels ſlow.

Morning.

Juliet. Wilt thou be gone? It is not yet near day:
It was the nightingale, and not the lark,
That pierced the fearful hollow of thine ear;
Nightly ſhe ſings on young pomegranate tree:
Believe me, love, it was the nightingale.
Romeo. It was the lark, the herald of the morn,
No nightingale: look, love, what envious ſtreaks
Do lace the ſevering clouds in yonder eaſt:
Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund Day
Stands tiptoe on the miſty mountain tops;
I muſt be gone and live, or ſtay and die.
Juliet. Yon light is not day light, I know it, I:
It is ſome meteor that the ſun exhales,
To be to thee this night a torch-bearer,
And light thee on thy way to Mantua:
Therefore ſtay yet, thou need'ſt not to be gone.
Romeo. Let me be ta'en, let me be put to death;
I am content, ſo thou wilt have it ſo.
I'll ſay yon grey is not the morning's eye,
'Tis but the pale reflex of Cynthia's brow;
Nor that is not the lark, whoſe notes do beat
The vaulty heaven ſo high above our heads:

* Dappled, ſtreaked, or variegated.
† That is, to the inhabitants of the earth.
‡ That is, with the part that ſmells; with the olfactory nerves.

I have more care to ſtay, than will to go;
Come, death, and welcome! Juliet wills it ſo.
How is't, my ſoul? Let's talk, it is not day.
Juliet. It is, it is; hie hence, begone, away;
It is the lark that ſings ſo out of tune, &c.

The paſſages we ſelect, not ſo much for any excellence of moral, as for their poetical beauties, require no particular comment, becauſe they muſt be obvious to every reader of taſte. We need only obſerve here, that both the nightingale and the morning have been ever favourites with the poets; with Milton, in particular, who was likewiſe fond of the cloſe of the evening, when ſhe began to ſing. But in their deſcriptions of the morning, the poets ſeem more eſpecially emulous; and no wonder; for the morning diſplays to the world, as it were, a new and magnificent creation. The landſcape around is exquiſitely beautiful. We behold the mountains crowned, as if by the inſtantaneous effect of enchantment, with majeſtic woods; the ſpreading lawns covered with herds and flocks; the fields ripening into harveſt; and the meadows enamelled with flowers, and watered by meandering ſtreams. The whole horizon looks gay; the ſcattered clouds aſſume a vivid variety of hues; the light vapours are converted into gold; and every plant and every flower ſparkles with 'orient pearl.' In proportion as the light increaſes, the ſpectacle is ſtill more beautiful. By ſoft progreſſions of light, Nature at length appears in her utmoſt perfection. The ſun is riſing. A firſt ray eſcaped from the mountain's top, that ſtill conceals the radiant orb from the ſight, darts rapidly from one end of the horizon to the other. Succeſſive rays ſtrengthen the firſt. The face of the ſun is diſengaged by degrees, till it looks, in boundleſs majeſty, abroad. All nature rejoices in a delightful renovation of life and vigour. The feathered tribes ſalute the ſource of day with their melodious notes. In fine, every living creature is in action, and is ſenſible to new returns of pleaſure and new capacities of enjoyment.—Had we room for quotations here, the ſuperior excellence of Shakſpeare in theſe deſcriptions, to moſt of the poets, would appear conſpicuous.

'This play,' ſays Dr. Johnſon, 'is one of the moſt pleaſing of our author's performances. The ſcenes are buſy and various, the incidents numerous and important, the cataſtrophe irreſiſtibly affecting, and the proceſs of the action carried on with ſuch probability, at leaſt with ſuch congruity to popular opinions, as tragedy required.'

Singular ANECDOTE *of a* MISER.

MR. Oſtervald, a well-known banker, died at Paris in December 1790, literally of want. This man, originally of Neufchatel, felt the violence of the diſeaſe of avarice (for ſurely it is rather a diſeaſe than a paſſion of mind) ſo ſtrongly, that, within a few days of his death, no importunities could induce him to buy a few pounds of meat for the purpoſe of making a little ſoup for him. 'Tis true,' ſaid he, 'I ſhould not diſlike the ſoup, but I have no appetite for the meat; what then is to become of that?' At the time that he refuſed this nouriſhment, for fear of being obliged to give away 2 or 3 pounds of meat, there was tied round his neck a ſilken bag, which contained 800 aſſignats of 1000 livres each. At his outſet in life, he drank a pint of beer, which ſerved him for ſupper, every night at a houſe much frequented, from which he carried home all the bottle-corks he could come at. Of theſe, in the courſe of eight years, he had collected as many as ſold for 12 louis-d'or, a ſum that laid the foundation of his future fortune, the ſuperſtructure of which was rapidly raiſed by his uncommon ſucceſs in ſtock-jobbing. He died poſſeſſed of 3 millions of livres, (125,000l. ſterl.)

ON PEDANTRY: An Eſſay.

[From 'The Olio;' a Collection of Eſſays, &c. by the late Francis Groſe, Eſq.]

THE denomination of pedant has long been improperly confined to men of literature, although in reality it is equally applicable to men of every deſcription. A pedant is one whoſe ideas are ſo totally engroſſed by the object of his peculiar ſtudies, that his common diſcourſe is tinctured with its technical terms. When this does not ariſe from affectation, it is by no means reprehenſible, but ſerves to ſhew the parties have attended to the ſtudy of their occupations.

Owing to this kind of pedantry, the profeſſion or occupation of the majority of any company may be diſcovered, every different calling having its peculiar alluſions, jokes and witticiſms. When a gentleman being aſked for a toaſt gives the chief juſtice, his honour the maſter of the rolls, or repeats the bon mots of Mr. juſtice Bullhead, or ſerjeant Splitcauſe, it requires no extraordinary ſagacity to diſcover that the propoſer of ſuch toaſts is a limb of the law.

On a like occaſion, a perſon drinking his grace the archbiſhop of Canterbury, or his brother of York, the biſhops of Durham or Wincheſter, pretty clearly points out a candidate for eccleſiaſtical preferment.

The health of the chancellor, is a more equivocal index, as he has conſiderable patronage to beſtow on the profeſſors of the law, as well as thoſe of the goſpel; ſo that the propoſer of this toaſt may be either a candidate for a law office, or a living; to determine which it will be neceſſary to conſult the context of his diſcourſe.

When a ſmart young fellow talks of the 18th, the 36th, or 64th, without diſcriminating to what thoſe numbers refer, now and then larding his diſcourſe with an oath, and often emphatically mentioning the ſervice, we may boldly pronounce him a military man.

If he cites ſome late determinations reſpecting proofs, drinks the maſter general, and talks of the Warren, it may be inferred that he is a military man, clothed in blue inſtead of ſcarlet.

Sailors are ſo notorious for their profeſſional alluſions, that they proclaim themſelves in every ſentence. In walking the ſtreet, if one of theſe gentlemen wiſhes you to quicken your pace, he will deſire you to carry more ſail; if to wait for him, to lie to; and if he deſires you to haſten any buſineſs you are about, he will requeſt you to bear a hand.

When a buckiſh young fellow talks of Jack Sprat, of Queen's; Tom Jackſon, of Maudlin; Joe Thomas, of Brazen Noſe; and Griff Jones, of Jeſus; he may be ſafely ſet down as an Oxonian or a Cantab.

The Bedford, the Garden, the town, the ton, and the houſes, emphatically pronounced by a well-dreſſed man, mark the ſpeaker to be a gentleman of gallantry and pleaſure, and probably a wit and a critic.

The alley, conſols, ſcrip, omnium, tickets, and the reſcounters, pronounced by a man in a cut wig, are indiſputable marks of a ſtock-jobber, or lottery-office keeper. One of theſe recovering from an illneſs, on being interrogated as to his health, will anſwer, he is cent. per cent. better: or ſpeaking of the circumſtances of a friend or acquaintance, will obſerve, he is above or below par; taking up an empty bottle or bowl, he will pronounce it a blank; and deſcribing a perſon in a dangerous ſituation, will declare he would not underwrite him on any conſideration. If pedantry be an improper diſplay of one's profeſſional knowledge, theſe are all ſurely as much entitled to the denomination of pedants, as the ſcholar who makes an oſtentatious ſhew of his learning.

PRO-

PROCEEDINGS *of the Third* SESSION *of the Seventeeth Parliament of* Great Britain, *continued from Vol. XCII, Page* 454.

THE next ſubject of moment in either houſe of parliament was the following petition from Warren Haſtings, eſq. preſented to the lords on Thurſday, May 16.

My Lords,

My evidence is now brought to its cloſe.

Sufficient has, I truſt, been already done for every immediate purpoſe of neceſſary juſtification; and it is not, my lords, from any apprehenſion that I entertain leſt any defects of this kind ſhould exiſt, or from a vain opinion that they could be ſupplied by me, that I preſent myſelf once more to your lordſhips' attention. No, my lords, I leave the proof which I have offered to its juſt and effectual operation, without any degree of doubtful anxiety for the iſſue. But, my lords, I riſe for a purpoſe which no external teſtimony can adequately ſupply, to convey to your lordſhips' minds a ſatisfaction which honourable minds may poſſibly expect, and which the ſolemn aſſeverations of a man impreſſed with a due ſenſe of the ſacred obligations of religion and honour can alone adequately convey.

'I know that the actual motives of human conduct are often dark and myſterious, and ſometimes inſcrutable. As far as the ſubject is capable of further aſcertainment, and the truth can be ſealed by a ſtill more ſolemn atteſtation, it is a duty which innocence owes to itſelf to afford it.

In the preſence, therefore, of that Being from whom no ſecrets are hid, I do, upon a full review and ſcrutiny of my paſt life, unequivocally and conſcientiouſly, declare, that, in the adminiſtration of that truſt of government which was during ſo many years confided to me, I did, in no inſtance, intentionally ſacrifice the intereſt of my country to any private views of my own perſonal advantage; that according to my beſt ſkill and judgment, I invariably promoted the eſſential intereſts of my employers, the happineſs and proſperity of the people committed to my charge, and the welfare and honour of my country, and at no time with more entire devotion of mind and purpoſe to theſe objects, than, during that period, in which my accuſers have endeavoured to repreſent me as occupied and engroſſed by the baſe purſuit of low, ſordid, and interdicted emolument.

It may be expected of me to ſay ſomething in addition to what you have heard from Mr. Woodman reſpecting the actual ſtate and extent of my fortune.

He has proved the total amount of my remittances from India during the period of my government; and that the balance of my fortune when laſt adjuſted, ſhortly after my return to England in 1785, amounted to little more than 65,000l.

I proteſt, in the name of Almighty God, that I made no remittances to England during that period, which were not made to him and my other attornies joined in truſt with him; that I had no other perſons in England, or Europe, in truſt of my pecuniary concerns; and that his account of thoſe remittances is accurately true, according to my beſt means of knowledge and belief upon the ſubject; and that, including thoſe remittances, I, at no time, poſſeſſed a fortune which exceeded, at its moſt extended amount, the ſum of 100,000l. and in this calculation I would be underſtood to comprehend every kind and deſcription of property whatſoever. That, at the period of my return to England, my fortune did not exceed the balance already mentioned to have been then in the hands of my attornies, by more than the ſum of 25,000l. amounting, on the largeſt calculation, to an aggregate ſum of between 80 and 90,000l. and all the property which I poſſeſs ſtands pledged at the preſent moment for the diſcharge of ſuch debts as I have contracted ſince the commencement of this long depending trial.

Theſe are the enormous fruits of thirteen years of imputed rapacity and peculation, and of upward of thirty years of active and important ſervice!

My lords, I know not how I can more fully and explicitly diſavow every purpoſe of appropriating to my own benefit any of the various ſums received and applied by me to the company's ſervice in moments of extreme peril and exigency, than in the very terms in which I expreſſed ſuch diſavowal at your lordſhips' bar in the month of June 1791. I again repeat, that I ſolemnly, and with a pure conſcience, affirm, that I never did harbour ſuch a thought for a ſingle inſtant.

If, in addition to the proof upon your lordſhips' table of the juſtice and neceſſity

of the meaſures which are the ſubjects of the two firſt articles of the charge, it can be required of me, by an act of ſolemn and ſacred atteſtation on my part, to vouch the truth of my defence in thoſe particulars, and to vindicate my character from the unfounded charge of malice alleged to have been entertained by me againſt the immediate objects of thoſe meaſures, I once more call God to witneſs that no motive of perſonal enmity, no views of perſonal advantage to myſelf, or others, induced the adoption on my part of any of thoſe meaſures for which I am this day criminally queſtioned; but that, in every inſtance, I acted under the immediate and urgent ſenſe of public duty, in obedience to the irreſiſtible demands of public ſafety, and to vindicate the juſt rights of the empire committed to my care, againſt thoſe who, in a moment of its greateſt peril, were engaged in hoſtile confederacy to deſtroy it.

I have no doubt, but that, upon a fair review of all the exiſting circumſtances, and the means of information then before me, no laviſh or improper expenditure of public money will be found to have taken place in reſpect to the contracts formed during my adminiſtration.

For the prudence and ſucceſs of the regulations adopted and purſued in reſpect to the controul and management of the public revenue, I truſt I may be allowed to appeal to the flouriſhing condition which the company's provinces enjoyed during the period of my government, and which has been, from the continued operation of the ſame cauſe, in a courſe of progreſſive improvement to the preſent hour.

I know that your lordſhips will, in your own enlightened and impartial wiſdom, juſtly eſtimate the difficulties by which I was ſurrounded during a long and arduous period of public ſervice; that you will allow for all the embarraſſments ariſing from the long counteraction of my aſſociates in the government—for errors reſulting from the honeſt imperfection of my own judgment—from occaſional deference to the counſels of others—and from the varying ſenſe of expediency which at different periods governed my own.

Your lordſhips well know, that the imperious exigencies of public affairs often preſent to the ſervants of the ſtate no alternative but the painful choice of contending evils.

The tranſcendent and peremptory duty of my ſituation was to deviſe and procure the neceſſary means of public ſafety. Feeling, as I did, the exigencies of the government as my own, and every preſſure upon them reſting with equal weight upon my mind; beſieged, as at ſometimes I was, by the hourly and clamorous importunities of every department of the military ſervice—goaded at others with the cries of our then famiſhed ſettlements on the coaſt of Coromandel—ſhould I have deſerved well, I do not ſay of my country, but of the common cauſe of ſuffering humanity, if I had punctiliouſly ſtood aloof from thoſe means of ſupply which gratitude or expectation enabled me to appropriate to the inſtant relief of ſuch diſtreſſes!

The whole tenor and conduct of my public life, is now, my lords, before you; it has undergone a ſcrutiny of ſuch extent and ſeverity as can find no parallel in former times, and I truſt will, in many of the peculiar circumſtances which have characteriſed and diſtinguiſhed this trial, leave no example to the future.

My lords, I have now performed the moſt ſolemn duty of my life, and with this I cloſe my defence.

I may now, I truſt, aſſuredly conſider myſelf as arrived at the threſhold of my deliverance; at that period when no delay or procraſtination can prevent the ſpeedy and final termination of the proceedings now depending before your lordſhips.

After ſuch recent and acceptable proof on the part of your lordſhips, of your earneſt diſpoſition to accelerate the concluſion of this trial, it would betray an unwarranted and unbecoming diſtruſt of your juſtice, to offer any requeſt to your lordſhips on this ſubject, had I not other cauſes of apprehenſion. At this momentous and awful criſis, ignorant of what may be in the minds of others, I am compelled to obviate every poſſible, even though improbable danger.

In the ſhort addreſs which I made to your lordſhips on Friday laſt, I ſtated, that I ſhould wave the obſervations of my counſel on the evidence of the article then before the court, and both the opening application of the evidence on the next; and that I made theſe ſacrifices, well aware of their importance, for the expreſs purpoſe of affording ample time to my proſecutors, during what remained of the probable term of this ſeſſion, to make their reply.

If the managers for the commons had been equally deſirous of accelerating the cloſe of this trial, and I had a right to ſuppoſe that they were ſo, from their repeated

mated declarations to that effect, what I had ſaid might have been conſtrued an offer of mutual accommodation: but, my lords, it was received with reſentment, and anſwered with reproach, and worſe inſinuation.

What other concluſion can I put upon this conduct, but that which is conveyed to my ears from every quarter—that they mean to endeavour to prevail on your lordſhips to adjourn over this trial to its ſeventh year, that one more may be given them to prepare their replies. I do not know that this is their intention, but I may be allowed to ſuppoſe it; and though impreſſed with the firmeſt confidence of the juſt and favourable diſpoſition of your lordſhips, I cannot but dread the event of a queſtion in which my rights may be at iſſue, with ſuch opponents as the managers of this proſecution, ſpeaking in the name of the houſe of commons, and of all the commons of Great Britain.

To meet ſuch an attempt, if made, I humbly offer to your lordſhips the following arguments, moſt anxiouſly recommending them to your conſideration:

In an addreſs to a court of Britiſh peers, I cannot offend by pleading the rights which I poſſeſs as a Britiſh ſubject—rights which are aſſured to me in common with all my fellow-ſubjects of this realm, by the pledges of ancient charters, and the ſanction of an oath, the moſt ſolemn that can be tendered or taken by men. My lords, I claim the performance of that ſacred promiſe, in all its implied obligations, that juſtice be adminiſtered to me, and that it be adminiſtered now.

In the long period of another year, I may be numbered with thoſe of my noble judges, whom I have, with ſorrow, ſeen drop off, year after year; and, in aggravation of the loſs which I have ſuſtained by their deaths, I may thus loſe the judgment of their ſurvivors by my own.

To the precepts and ſanctions of the law, I join the rights which are derived from the practice of it.

In the other courts of this kingdom their criminal proceſs is limited in its duration by expreſs and poſitive regulations.

On this high court, charged with other various important duties, the wiſdom of our anceſtors has impoſed no reſtraint but the rule of honour: and to that honour I make this my laſt appeal; humbly praying, that if in the courſe of this hard and long-extended trial I have conducted myſelf with the moſt patient and reſpectful ſubmiſſion, and borne all the aggravating circumſtances of it with a tranquillity of mind, which nothing but a conſciouſneſs of integrity, and an equal reliance on your ultimate juſtice could have ſupported, I may obtain from your lordſhips this only grace, that your lordſhips will order the trial, now paſt its legal proceſs, to continue to its final concluſion during the preſent ſeſſion.

A debate enſued on this petition; the reſult of which was that their lordſhips would not bind themſelves to the prayer of the petition, but reſolved, upon motion, to proceed farther on the trial the next day.

In the houſe of commons, the ſame day, a bill to enable magiſtrates to fine overſeers and conſtables for neglect of duty, and maſters for cruelty to their apprentices, was read a third time and paſſed.

On Friday, May 17, the houſe took into conſideration a motion of ſir John Sinclair's, for an addreſs to his majeſty, to appoint a board of agriculture.

The hon. baronet had opened this buſineſs on a preceding day, when he entered into a deſcription of the preſent ſtate of agriculture and farming in the kingdom; and illuſtrated the very great degree of improvement they were ſuſceptible of, and which muſt tend more than any thing elſe to the real and permanent proſperity of the nation. His idea was, that a board of commiſſioners ſhould be conſtituted for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing a correſpondence on the ſubject with foreign countries, and circulating information of the improvements made therein to all parts of the kingdom; that they ſhould be inveſted with the privilege of franking, and aſſiſted by ſecretaries, clerks, agents, &c. the expence of which would be about 3000l. per annum. As to the members of the board itſelf, he was confident that many gentlemen would accept the ſituation for the ſole purpoſe of doing good, and would refuſe all emolument. Such an inſtitution muſt be attended (as the example of other countries evinced) with the moſt beneficial effects; however, the meaſure he propoſed was only as an experimental one, and ſhould at preſent be conſtituted to laſt only for five years. He then moved an addreſs to his majeſty, praying that he would be pleaſed to order the appointment of a board on the above principals, &c. and the houſe would make good the expence incurred thereby.

The chief objection urged by thoſe who were againſt the addreſs, was, that they feared

feared the eſtabliſhment of a board of agriculture would turn out to be a ſource of influence and patronage, and a heavy expence to the public, without the certainty of any one advantage to the nation.

Sir W. Dolben ſaid, that the ſociety for the encouragement of arts and commerce, eſtabliſhed in the Adelphi, anſwered all the purpoſes of the propoſed inſtitution; it held a correſpondence with every part, not only of theſe kingdoms, but of Europe; and communicated to the public every improvement made in agriculture. It was not, from philoſophical white-ſtocking farmers that improvements were to be expected, but from the practical huſbandman. The ſociety to which he alluded, would ſoon be degraded indeed, if it were in future to have the trouble of paying away its money in premiums, on the abjudication of a new board of agriculture.

Mr. Sheridan, to guard againſt the poſſibility of the new inſtitution becoming a ſource of patronage or influence, moved by way of amendment, that the aſſurance given in the motion, that the houſe would defray all expence attending the new board, ſhould be omitted, and the following words inſerted in their room: 'Provided that no expence whatever ſhall be incurred by the public in conſequence thereof.'

Mr. Fox objected to the original motion, becauſe the meaſure was in itſelf objectionable, it being in his opinion a mere job, and likely to be converted into an inſtrument of influence; and becauſe, if the meaſure were a good one, the mode propoſed for carrying it into execution was a bad one. If ſuch a board ought to be inſtituted at all, it ought to be done by act of parliament, and not by an addreſs; for if done by an act, both houſes would have an opportunity of examining the regulations of the board, and every thing belonging to it.

The chancellor of the exchequer ſaid, it was impoſſible that the board ſhould be fairly ſtyled an inſtrument of influence, or the means of extending patronage. The expence was to be 3000l. a year; but this money was not to be for ſalaries to the members, but merely for defraying, in the firſt inſtance, the expence of clerks for doing the ordinary buſineſs of the board; and the reſt of the ſum was to be laid out in procuring uſeful information reſpecting agriculture, and diſſeminating it through the kingdom, by means of publications.

The houſe divided, and Mr. Sheridan's amendment was loſt by a majority of 75: ayes 26; noes 101.

The queſtion was next put on ſir John Sinclair's motion in its original ſhape, and carried without oppoſition.

The ſame day, the houſe entered into the diſcuſſion of a clauſe in Mr. Dundas' bill, for renewing the charter of the Eaſt India company, which was to enable his majeſty to appoint two additional members to the board of controul, not of the privy council, and with ſalaries.

Mr. Fox roſe, and lamented the abſence of thoſe, who, on a former occaſion, had voted for the reduction of the influence of the crown. If thoſe gentlemen had altered their opinions ſince the year 1780, let them declare it; if not by ſpeech, by vote. The public had a right to know their opinions, and, to aſcertain them, he was determined to take the ſenſe of the houſe upon the queſtion, and ſhould he be unfortunate enough to find himſelf in a minority, he was alſo determined to take the ſenſe of the houſe on every future occaſion the forms of proceeding would admit.—The propoſed meaſure was for a ſhameleſs increaſe of the influence of the crown, in open defiance to all thoſe profeſſions of its having been ſo extended as to merit curtailment. He was particularly deſirous that gentlemen would deliver their opinions, as he wiſhed to aſcertain how far thoſe who had formerly united with him, now meant to ſupport adminiſtration, for no other reaſon than that adminiſtration had unneceſſarily plunged the country into a mad impolitic war. There never was a period more neceſſary than the preſent to obſerve ſtrict economy; for at no period were the people, in general, in more diſtreſs; nor was its extent to be calculated. He argued from the right hon. ſecretary's competence to diſcharge the offices of ſecretary of ſtate, treaſury of the navy, and preſident of the board of control, that the buſineſs at the board was ſo enormouſly heavy as to render doubtful the obtaining of privy-counſellors to diſcharge its duties. He concluded by moving an amendment to leave out the word *two*.

Mr. ſecretary Dundas, after obſerving that Mr. Fox had not always been equally averſe to patronage and influence for carrying on the government of India, contended, that by a compariſon of the bill he now ſubmitted to the houſe, with that propoſed by Mr. Fox in 1784, it would be found that the preſent did not contain the hundredth part of the patronage and influence

influence of the bill of 1784; which bill, inſtead of reſtricting, as the preſent did, the patronage and influence of India, gave into the hands of nine commiſſioners, appointed by the bill, the whole patronage and influence, unreſtrained and unlimited, of upward of 400 offices, from 25 to 20, to 15, to 10, and to 5,000l. per annum each. In reply to the obſervation of his holding the office of ſecretary of ſtate, treaſury of the navy, and preſident of the board of control, he aſſured the right hon. gentleman, that he did not hold the office of ſecretary by his own wiſhes; it had never been an object of his deſire; but a temporary arrangement having been made, by which his majeſty ſignified to him his pleaſure that he ſhould hold the ſeals, he had accepted them, and had continued to act upon the expreſs condition of not receiving any emolument therefrom. Upon theſe terms he had, from a variety of circumſtances been led on day after day, not with his own wiſhes, to hold that arduous office. He declared, that the duties of his offices were much too arduous for one man; and, after a few obſervations upon the wiſdom of encouraging the inveſtigation of Indian politics, by holding out ſome offices in that line for young men to aſpire to, which was in part the object of the clauſe, he concluded againſt the amendment.

Mr. Fox ſaid, he had never before heard his bill blamed for affording patronage to the crown: it was reſiſted upon directly the oppoſite ground. He was ready to meet the right hon. ſecretary upon the ſuggeſted compariſon, and doubted not but an opportunity would be afforded in a ſubſequent ſtage. With reſpect to his not having received his ſalary for ſecretary, he had never, until that day, heard of the abſtinence: but as he did not receive it, it would be ſatisfactory for the public to know in what way they were benefited by his not receiving it.

The chancellor of the exchequer ſaid, the ſaving was to the civil liſt.

Mr. Sheridan, after ridiculing Mr. Dundas' object, by the clauſe, of bringing up young Indian ſtateſmen, recommended to him the erection of a menagerie for the breeding of ſecretaries of ſtate, and other great officers.

The queſtion being put, the amendment was negatived, and the houſe dividing upon the original queſtion, it was carried, ayes 113, noes 42.

On Wedneſday, May 22, Mr. Wilberforce moved, that the houſe do reſolve itſelf into a committee, to conſider a motion for leave to bring in a bill, ſo far to aboliſh the ſlave trade, as to prevent the ſupply of ſlaves to foreign iſlands. The houſe, after ſome debate, which contained nothing new on the ſubject, divided on the queſtion, ayes 61, noes 18; and the chairman having afterward moved for leave to bring in the bill, the houſe again divided, ayes 51, noes 24. The houſe being reſumed, Mr. Wilberforce, the chancellor of the exchequer, and Mr. Fox, were ordered to bring in the ſame.

On Monday, May 27, the houſe went into the conſideration of the report of the committee on the Stockbridge election bill; when a debate took place; in the courſe of which, it was argued, in ſupport of the bill, that the evidence appearing on the minutes of the committee, went to prove in a ſatisfactory manner, that a majority of the electors at the laſt election, had been guilty of corruption; that, in ſuch a caſe, it was proper and juſt to make an arrangement for preventing ſimilar abuſes in future; that the laying open the borough, was the beſt means of attaining that object, and was not to be conſidered as a matter of experiment, becauſe the good effects of it had been aſcertained in other caſes, particularly in the caſe of Cricklade; and that the bill did, by no means, go to incapacitate any of the electors of Stockbridge, but only to extend the right of voting to certain other perſons, who were to enjoy it along with them. On theſe grounds, the motion for receiving the report, was ſupported by Mr. Elliot, Mr. Buxton, Mr. ſerjeant Watſon, ſir Francis Baſſet, and Mr. Hardinge.

On the other hand it was denied, that there appeared, in the minutes of the committee, any evidence which could ſatisfy the houſe, that a majority of the electors had been guilty of corruption, or indeed that any of them had been ſo; that the right of elective franchiſe was, in true, legal, and conſtitutional language, a valuable and important right, the communication of which to others was in fact an incapacitation, to a certain extent, of thoſe by whom it was at preſent enjoyed; that, in this view, the preſent bill was truly a bill of pains and penalties, and was therefore unjuſt, both as proceeding without evidence of guilt, and becauſe it would operate as an *ex poſt facto* law, againſt perſons who had no intimation *à priori*, that, by acting as they did, they would be ſubjected to ſuch a puniſhment as was inflicted by the preſent bill. On theſe grounds,

grounds, the motion was oppoſed, and a negative given to the bill, by ſir Richard Hill, Mr. Welbore Ellis, Mr. Powys, Mr. Barham, and the attorney and ſolicitor-generals.

The houſe divided, ayes 33, noes 42, majority againſt the bill 9.

On Friday, May 31, a bill which had been brought into the houſe of lords, by lord Rawdon, for regulating the law between debtors and creditors, and which had met with conſiderable oppoſition in the diſcuſſion of various clauſes of it, was finally loſt; lord Thurlow having moved, 'that this bill be read a third time, on this day two months;' when the numbers were, contents 10, not contents 5.

A committee having been appointed to take into conſideration the ſtate of the impeachment of Warren Haſtings, eſq. Mr. C. Townſhend, on Thurſday, May 30, made the report of the committee to the houſe, by which it appeared, that Mr. Haſtings had cloſed his defence; and that the lords had appointed the Wedneſday following for the reply of the commons; but that, as it would be impoſſible for the commons to be prepared by that time, he ſhould move, that a meſſage be ſent to the lords, acquainting them therewith, and requeſting a farther day.

Mr. Wigley oppoſed the motion, urging the neceſſity and juſtice of concluding ſpeedily that trial, which had, by its continuance for more than ſix years, operated on Mr. Haſtings as a ſevere puniſhment.

Mr. Fox roſe to exculpate the managers from any imputation of delay, and to ſhew the impoſſibility of the managers replying on Wedneſday, on which day it was not likely that even the counſels' ſpeeches, and the evidence produced on the Benares charge, would be printed; and to thoſe ſpeeches which would occupy 260 folio pages, and to the evidence, filling three folio volumes, he had to reply.

Mr. Burden was againſt the motion, which, on the other hand, was ſupported by the ſolicitor-general, Mr. Burke, and the chancellor of the exchequer; the latter deeming it unreaſonable in any one to expect the managers to reply on Wedneſday to evidence and ſpeeches which were not yet, nor probably on Wedneſday next, would be, printed.

The queſtion being put, the houſe divided for the motion, ayes 87; noes 42; majority 45.

The meſſage was next propoſed, and worded in ſubſtance as follows: that in conſideration of the caſe of Mr. Haſtings having been cloſed earlier than had been expected, and in conſequence of the time neceſſary to print the evidence, &c. the commons ſtated themſelves to be unprepared to reply on the day appointed, and deſired a farther day. This meſſage having been agreed to, Mr. C. Townſhend was ordered to carry the ſame to the lords.

Mr. Burke again roſe, and after expreſſing his anxiety for the honour and dignity of that houſe, which was implicated in the character of the managers, and to prove that on their part no delay had ariſen, moved, that the managers ſhould prepare and lay before the houſe a ſtatement of the progreſs of the impeachment, of circumſtances which had ariſen thereon, with obſervations.

Mr. Long, Mr. Ryder, and Mr. Wigley, were againſt the motion as unneceſſary, and the latter moved the previous queſtion. The ſolicitor-general, Mr. Dundas, and the chancellor of the exchequer, wiſhed the motion to be withdrawn; but the two latter declared themſelves determined, if the queſtions were put, to vote againſt the previous queſtion, and for the original motion. Meſſrs. Sheridan, Fox, and Francis ridiculed the oppoſition of thoſe to the preſent motion, who had always held out inſinuations againſt the managers for delay; now when facts were propoſed to be brought forward, they ſhrunk back, wiſhing to perſevere in their old ſyſtem of inſinuation.—Mr. Taylor, Mr. Windham, Mr. Jenkinſon, and Mr. Stanley, jun. were alſo for the motion; the latter gentleman urging ſtrongly the right of the managers to exculpate themſelves from the blame which had been in public and private inſinuated againſt them.

After ſome farther converſation, Mr. Wigley, perſiſting in his motion of the previous queſtion, the houſe divided, ayes 69; noes 69.

The ſpeaker gave his caſting vote againſt the previous queſtion.

The original queſtion was next put and negatived, ayes 67; noes 71; majority againſt the motion 4.

Mr. Burke gave notice, that as the motion which he had deemed of eſſential importance to the honour, dignity, and intereſt of the houſe, had been loſt by ſo ſmall a majority, he would, on ſome future day, bring it again forward in a different form.

On Friday, May 31, Mr. Wharton roſe, to make a motion reſpecting the preſent ſtate of the conſtitution; he prefaced

t with a ſhort ſpeech, in which he pledged himſelf to prove, ſhould his motion be agreed to, that all the ſalutary proviſions which were aſſerted and enacted at the time of the revolution, for the ſecurity and the pure adminiſtration of the conſtitution of theſe kingdoms, had been, ſince that period, almoſt entirely done away. He then concluded by moving. 'That a committee be appointed to enquire whether any, and which of the proviſions made by parliament in the reign of William and Mary, and in the reign of William, for ſecuring the reſponſible exerciſe of the executive authority; for ſecuring a fair, free, and frequent repreſentation of the commons in parliament, and for ſecuring a fair and impartial adminiſtration of juſtice in the courts of law: whether any, and which of theſe proviſions have by any means been invalidated or taken away; and to conſider whether any, and which of theſe loſt or invalidated proviſions may be fit to be re-enacted, in order to reſtore the people of this country to the ſituation in which they were placed by the glorious revolution of 1688.'—Colonel Macleod ſeconded the motion, and the queſtion being immediately put, the houſe divided, for the motion 71; againſt it 11; majority 60.

The houſe then, in a committee, came to a reſolution, on the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer, that the penſion of the late lord Rodney, be continued, in perpetuity, to his deſcendants inheriting the barony.

On Wedneſday, June 3, in the houſe of lords, when the conſideration of the Eaſt India bill took place, it was objected to, as increaſing the patronage of the crown, by lords Guildford, Lauderdale, and Fitzwilliam, and defended by lords Grenville, and Hawkeſbury.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury ſaid, he would have been better pleaſed with the bill, if it had contained ſome proviſion for communicating the comforts of the Chriſtian religion to the people of India.

The biſhop of St. David's did not approve of the idea of ſending miſſionaries to India, or any foreign country, for the purpoſe of converting the natives. The religious eſtabliſhment of every nation he conſidered as connected with its government, and no apoſtles, except thoſe commiſſioned by heaven, ought to interfere with the conſcientious opinions of any deſcription of men. He thought, however, that more attention ought to have been paid to our own ſubjects in that country, by affording them the means of inſtruction in the religion they profeſſed.

Lord Grenville ſtated, that the Eaſt India company expended annually upward of 12,000l. in their eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment, and that they had already a power to increaſe it, by a former act of parliament.

The biſhop of London did not mean to make any ſpecific motion, but he truſted the company would think it right to adopt the ideas of the rev. prelate who ſpoke laſt, and that they would appoint chaplains to their ſhips.

The bill then went through, without any amendment, and the next day paſſed.

On Friday, June 7, the earls of Selkirk and Stair were declared duly elected to repreſent the Scotch peerage, ſo that there wanted but one to complete the number 16; and for this vacant ſeat (beſide the ſuppoſed one occaſioned by lord Stormont's becoming a Britiſh peer) it appeared that eight lords had equal votes; of courſe, a new election muſt take place, previouſly to the next meeting of parliament.

The preceding day, in the houſe of commons, Mr. Grey roſe, to propoſe a meſſage to the lords, in conſequence of their anſwer to their laſt meſſage, in which they had appointed Monday next to hear the reply. He contended, that to preſs the managers to a reply, ſo unexpectedly as they were called on, would be attended with conſiderable diſadvantage to the proſecution, and afford no fair advantage to the defendant. He was ready to prove, that whatever delay had ariſen in the progreſs of the trial, none was attributable either to the managers, or to the houſe. Nor was the motion he now had to propoſe, any fair ground to attribute to the managers a wiſh of delay; for the fact was, that the evidence which they had been at firſt ordered to reply to yeſterday, and were appointed to reply to on Monday next, was not yet printed. After ſtating it to be inconſiſtent with juſtice to call on them for a reply ſo ſituated, and the impoſſibility of his being ſufficiently prepared by Monday next, to open the reply on the firſt charge, he concluded by moving, that a meſſage be ſent to the lords, acquainting them, that the commons, having taken into conſideration the circumſtances of the trial of Mr. Haſtings, and the prolonged period of the preſent ſeſſion, are not only convinced, that it would not be poſſible to come to judgment, in the preſent ſeſſion, upon the charges, the whole

of which their lordſhips have on a former occaſion conſidered as one, but that it would be, if not impoſſible, extremely difficult to reply to the firſt charge; to repreſent alſo to their lordſhips, that it would be injurious to the cauſe of public juſtice to break the reply to the charges; and that, therefore, the commons deſire their lordſhips to order the trial to go over to the next ſeſſion, when the commons would be ready to proceed day by day till final judgment ſhould be given, if their lordſhips thought fit.

Mr. Wigley oppoſed the motion, as prejudicial to the juſtice and character of the houſe, and which, if paſſed, would carry with it ſuch a marked wiſh for delay, as would render impeachments deteſtable.—Mr. E. Law, Mr. Cawthorne, Mr. Ryder, colonel M'Leod, and ſir John Trevelyan, alſo ſpoke againſt the motion.

Mr. Francis and Mr. Sheridan ſpoke in favour of the motion; and the latter obſerved that the managers were called upon to anſwer evidence they had not yet before them. He could not ſee any fair advantage the friends of the defendant could expect, by precipitating the managers to a reply in the preſent ſeſſion, as it was wholly impoſſible for judgment to be obtained until the next.

Mr. ſecretary Dundas roſe alſo in ſupport of the motion. If, he ſaid, he thought the motion could operate unjuſtly to the defendant, or to promote a delay of final judgment, he ſhould be as ready as any man to give it his negative: but he was completely ſatisfied that the motion would tend ultimately to haſten the concluſion.—Sending the managers unprepared to reply, would be a complete loſs of the days in which they might be ſo occupied; and ſhould the managers be forced to open their reply, they would not be able, in the courſe of the preſent ſeſſion, to cloſe that reply even on the firſt article. Much had been ſaid of delay, and of the trial having continued ſix years; but to whom was ſuch delay to be attributed? Not in any degree to that houſe, or to the managers, againſt whom ſuch inſinuations were neither juſt nor generous from thoſe gentlemen, who had negatived a propoſition made by the managers on a former day, of ſtating the whole facts of the trial, to exculpate themſelves from every ſhadow of a foundation for ſuch charge. If, however, there were any delay in the trial, it lay with the lords. He here noticed the few days appointed to proceed, and the few hours occupied in thoſe days on the proceedings, and dwelt ſhortly upon the deviation from the mode of proceeding in the impeachment of Sacheverel, when their lordſhips did not think it neceſſary to proceed only when all the judges could be preſent. He ſaw no good reaſon why their lordſhips could not have proceeded in the trial of Mr. Haſtings, during the time the judges were on their circuits; for their lordſhips certainly had in their own body, members ſufficient to decide on all points of evidence that could come before them; they had great law lords in the lord chancellor, the late lord chancellor, the chief juſtice, lord Bathurſt, and another great light, who, though not a law lord, was frequently teaching the *judges law* and the *biſhops religion* (Lord Stanhope was now under the gallery, and the alluſion created conſiderable laughter.) Had their lordſhips proceeded without waiting for the continued preſence of the judges, he was confident the trial might have been concluded in one, or in two ſeſſions at the moſt: as they had not, he was, of courſe, to ſuppoſe that they had acted wiſely; but as a member of the houſe of commons, and bound to maintain its honour and dignity, he would not ſo far compliment the lords, as to attribute the delay occaſioned by them to the commons. It was unjuſt and injurious to that houſe to allow it to be ſpread through the country at large, that the delay was their blame.

The queſtion being put, the numbers againſt the meſſage were 66; for it 61.

Mr. Burke immediately gave notice that he ſhould to-morrow, in conſequence of the extraordinary proceeding of that day, ſubmit a motion to the houſe, which he deemed abſolutely neceſſary for its honour, dignity, and character.

The next day, Mr. Grey roſe, and ſtated to the houſe, that the conduct of the impeachment had been at all times a difficult taſk: it was now, however, in conſequence of the vote of yeſterday, rendered far more difficult than it ever had been before. Had he yeſterday acted upon his feelings on that vote, he ſhould have moved to have had his name withdrawn from the liſt of managers, for he felt them placed, by that vote, in a moſt diſagreeable predicament. They were called on to conduct the impeachment ordered by that houſe, when they had declared themſelves unprepared for the early day appointed, and in which declaration they had expected to meet the ſupport of the houſe, who were their employers. If the

houſe were of opinion, that their managers had been guilty of miſmanagement, and had brought the impeachment into ſuch a ſtate, that it could no longer be carried on for the purpoſes of juſtice, or with honour to the houſe, they ought to declare ſuch opinion, and to cenſure the managers; or, if the houſe had altered its opinion of the propriety of the impeachment they had upon mature deliberation voted, and were now of opinion that it could no longer be carried on with propriety, the juſt and manly mode that ſhould be adopted would be a deciſive vote. They ought not to ſend the managers to the bar of the houſe of lords to conduct that impeachment which they were thwarting, by throwing difficulties in the way of the managers, and by abandoning them. He had yeſterday declared, and he again declared, that he could not poſſibly be enabled on Monday next, with credit to himſelf, and juſtice to the cauſe, to open the reply he was called on by the lords to do. The houſe had yeſterday negatived a meſſage to the lords for the delay which had then been propoſed: he felt a right in conſequence of that deciſion to call on them for a diſcharge from the taſk he had been appointed to execute, and he now called upon the houſe either to diſcharge him from that ſervice, or to give him ſuch directions how to act at the bar of the lords, as they might think fit.

Mr. Burke next roſe: he ſaid the managers of the preſent impeachment were placed in a ſituation in which no other managers had ever before been placed. A ſpecious plea of humanity had been ſet up on the part of the defendant to induce the houſe to abandon them. A man who had held an office under the authority of that houſe, producing him a clear ſalary of 30,000l. a year for fourteen years, with the lives and fortunes of millions at his diſpoſal, had been held up as a poor and oppreſſed individual; but no plea of humanity had been advanced, excepting by the managers, for thoſe unfortunate women, whom that oppreſſed individual had plundered of millions.

Mr. Rolle ſpoke to order, contending, that as the defendant was on his trial for the charge now alluded to by the right hon. gentleman, it was diſorderly to bring it forward: it had before been diſcuſſed in that houſe, and was now elſewhere to be decided upon.

The ſpeaker did not conſider the right hon. gentleman to be diſorderly, as he imagined him to be advancing an argument to prove the difficulty of the ſituation of the managers in being called on to reply to that charge on Monday. He recommended it, however, to the right hon. gentleman, to refrain from any argument which might at preſent lead to a length of diſcuſſion, as the urgency of the caſe, the day appointed for the reply being Monday, required the adoption of ſome prompt and ſpeedy meaſure. If the lords were now ſitting, a meſſage might be ſent to them to requeſt them to ſit ſome time longer to receive another meſſage. If they were not ſitting, the houſe might, if they thought fit, inſtruct their managers to deſire the lords on Monday to defer the proceedings to a future day.

Mr. Burke ſubmitted to any form the houſe ſhould adopt, but contended that the managers could not on Monday, conſiſtently with the rules of juſtice, he deſired to proceed to their reply.

The ſpeaker informed the houſe, that it had been intimated to him that the lords had already adjourned to Monday, but, as they would meet on that day, previouſly to the proceeding with the trial, a meſſage from the commons, if agreed upon that night, could be delivered on Monday.

Mr. ſecretary Dundas declared himſelf to be fully ſatisfied that the vote of laſt night could not in any degree haſten the trial; and he felt an ardent wiſh that the managers might be allowed time to prepare for a reply. The forms of the houſe would not admit of his making a ſimilar motion to that which was yeſterday negatived. That motion, however, was, to requeſt their lordſhips to defer the proceedings of the trial unto the next ſeſſion of parliament; it was therefore regular in him now to move a meſſage to the lords, to requeſt of them farther time than Monday next for the managers to reply; and to ſuch motion it did not occur to him that any gentleman, wiſhing the impeachment to have a fair iſſue, could heſitate one moment to give his aſſent. He concluded by moving the meſſage.

The ſpeaker, before he put the queſtion, begged to remind the houſe, that ſhould the motion be agreed to, it would be abſolutely neceſſary that a houſe ſhould be formed early on Monday forenoon, to receive their lordſhips anſwer, in order, if, as it was to be hoped it might, it ſhould obtain their lordſhips acquieſcence, the managers might be relieved from their attendance. If the meſſage ſhould be carried, and an unfavourable anſwer return-

ed, the attendance would be equally neceſſary, as conſequences of a very diſagreeable nature might follow.

At laſt, the houſe divided on the queſtion, ayes 82; noes 46; majority for the meſſage 30.

Mr. Burke then moved, that the report of the committee appointed to conſider of the proceedings of the impeachment be preſented to the lords; which motion, after a debate, was carried.

On Monday, June 10, the meſſage from the commons was preſented to the lords, when lord Grenville moved, 'That the trial be proceeded with on the ſecond Tueſday in the next ſeſſion of parliament.'

Lord Stanhope oppoſed ſuch a delay, and moved an amendment, 'That the trial ſhould be proceeded farther with on Wedneſday next.'

The amendment was negatived, on a diviſion, contents 21; not contents 48. Lord Grenville's motion was then carried without a diviſion, and a meſſage ſent to the commons accordingly.

On Wedneſday, June 12, a bill, that had been introduced by Mr. Dundas, for repealing the duties on coals in Scotland, and laying certain duties on ſpirits in lieu thereof, was read a third time and paſſed.

Mr. Wilberforce then moved, that the houſe ſhould now reſolve itſelf into a committee on the bill for aboliſhing the foreign ſlave trade.

Mr. Cawthorne moved an amendment to omit the word 'now,' for the purpoſe of introducing the words 'this day fortnight.'

Mr. Eſte ſupported the amendment, which was carried on a diviſion, ayes 31; noes 29; majority 2.

The bill is conſequently loſt; but Mr. Wilberforce gave notice, that he ſhould bring it before the houſe early in the next ſeſſion.

On Wedneſday, June 12, Mr. Whitbread called the attention of the houſe to certain paragraphs that appeared in a paper called 'The World,' of the 27th ult. and which contained the moſt ſcandalous and indecent reflections on the conduct of the managers of the impeachment, and through them on the houſe at large. The firſt paragraph reflected in indecent terms on the general conduct of the managers; and the ſecond contained certain words, aſſerted to have been ſpoken by the archbiſhop of York, relative to the croſs examination of Mr. Auriol. The rev. prelate was ſtated to have pronounced, that, in this examination, the witneſs had been treated as if he had been a pickpocket, and queſtions propoſed of ſuch a nature, as could be equalled only by Marat or Robeſpierre, had they had the conduct of the impeachment, &c. Mr. Whitbread obſerved, that if the printer of the paper only were concerned, ſuch a publication would be ſufficient for the purpoſe of bringing him to puniſhment; but ſuch unwarrantable language being ſaid to come from the lips of one of the judges in the cauſe, the ſtatement of a newſpaper was not ſufficient: he had a better authority to recur to, namely, the minutes of the ſhort-hand writer employed by the houſe. Theſe he read, and it appeared, that the language of his grace of York, on the occaſion, was nearly ſimilar to what had been recited in the newſpaper. He ſaid, that to ſtate theſe circumſtances to the houſe was ſufficient: they would decide on the ſteps proper to be taken. However, he deemed it his duty to move, firſt, That the attorney-general be directed to proſecute the printer of The World; and next, that a committee be appointed to enquire into the fact, whether the words recited in that paper were really ſpoken by the archbiſhop of York, or not.

The ſpeaker obſerved, that the precedent in a caſe nearly ſimilar, and with the ſame paper, which occurred in 1789, would be more regular than the ſuggeſtion of the hon. gentleman.

The precedent being read from the journals, it was adopted, and Mr. Whitbread accordingly moved, as a reſolution previous to the ſecond form—That the ſaid paper contained matter of a ſcandalous and libellous nature on the conduct of the managers, &c.

Mr. Francis ſeconded the motion.

Mr. ſecretary Dundas ſaid, he hoped the words, as recited, were never ſpoken by the reſpectable prelate in queſtion; and, if they were, he doubted not but he had frequently ſince repented of them. It was an inſtance of the fallibility of human nature in one of the wiſeſt and beſt of men. With reſpect to the hon. gentleman's propoſition, he thought it improper, on ſuch an occaſion as the preſent, to commit the dignity of the houſe in a proſecution in the courts below, the reſult of which, an inſtance nearly ſimilar had evinced, may not be ſuch as could be wiſhed.—To the ſecond propoſition he objected, that the time for ſuch a proceeding was paſt; and, even if no objection lay to it on the ſcore of regularity,

larity, ſeveral meſſages had ſince paſſed between the houſe and their lordſhips on the ſubject of the trial, and not the ſmalleſt intimation of the preſent buſineſs given; nor could a conference be now called for with propriety; he thought it could anſwer no good end to proceed in it; and what paſſed that night in the houſe would be ſufficiently expreſſive of its indignant ſenſe of the alleged language; he, therefore, would propoſe, that the debate ſhould be adjourned, as the beſt mode which could be adopted on the preſent occaſion. He then moved to that effect, which was ſeconded by Mr. Jekyll.

On a diviſion, there were, for an adjournment 60, againſt it 8.

On Monday, June 17, in the houſe of lords, earl Stanhope, after a long deſultory ſpeech, moved, 'That the houſe, having taken into its moſt ſerious conſideration the memorial preſented by lord Auckland to the ſtates-general, on the 5th of April 1793, find it there declared, that the perſons delivered up by general Dumourier, are liable to be tried and put to death.'—If that motion ſhould be agreed to, he would next, he ſaid, move an addreſs to his majeſty to diſavow the ſaid memorial.

Lord Grenville entered into an able vindication of lord Auckland's memorial. His arguments were a repetition of what had been urged on the ſame ſubject in the houſe of commons (*See Vol. XCII. page* 376); and he not only denied the conſtruction put upon the memorial by earl Stanhope, but ſaid, that he did not think that ſimply negativing the queſtion would be doing juſtice to the noble lord (Auckland) and he ſhould, therefore, move an amendment, declaring the opinion of the houſe to be, 'that the memorial expreſſed the ſentiments of the juſt abhorrence of the nation, and was conformable to the declarations of parliament, with reſpect to the murder of the king of France.'

Lord Guildford did not think lord Auckland's memorial would bear the conſtruction put upon it by the noble mover of the queſtion; he conſidered it merely as a miſerable triumph over thoſe whom chance had put into our power; and, therefore, ſince he could neither criminally condemn the memorial, nor did it meet with his approbation, he ſhould move the previous queſtion.—Lord Lauderdale was of the ſame opinion.

Lord Auckland, after the full vindication of his memorial from the noble ſecretary of ſtate, was content to obſerve, that the memorial conſiſted of three paragraphs; the firſt, merely a reference to what had paſſed; the ſecond, an obſervation upon a fact, and a declared deteſtation of the regicides; and the third, a ſtatement of thoſe wretches being in the hands of the Dutch, and liable to the courſe of juſtice, ſo loſt to all ſenſe of humanity, juſtice, and loyalty, as not to admit that ſuch wretches were ſo liable? He had been cenſured for uſing hard names; but whenever he ſhould ſpeak of ſuch men as Briſſot, Chabot, Condorcet, Robeſpierre, or that monſter of iniquity, the duke of Orleans, he would perſiſt in uſing thoſe terms. In his memorial, the language held out was not with the intention of having the parties put to death by thoſe in whoſe hands they were, but to have them delivered over for trial, whenever courts ſhould be eſtabliſhed in France before which they could be tried, and that they might be given over to that juſtice which he continued to hope they might yet ſooner or later meet.

In the courſe of the debate, many things were ſaid, reſpecting the preſent expediency of carrying on the war. The duke of Clarence, among others, expreſſed his opinion on this ſubject. He had come down to the houſe, he ſaid, with a predetermination to give his vote againſt the motion, conceiving it to contain matter of too perſonal a nature for the dignity of their lordſhips to approve. The memorial, however, not being ſuch as he could applaud, he ſhould not vote with the noble ſecretary; but agreeing fully in every thing which had fallen from a noble earl (Guildford) he would give his vote for the previous queſtion. He was confident the memorial could not bear the conſtruction put upon it by the noble earl, who had brought forward the debate; for no Britiſh ſubject could have ſuggeſted ſo ſanguinary a meaſure. As the war had been alluded to, he would declare his opinion freely; that he had approved it in its commencement as juſt and neceſſary no man could doubt, for he had ſpoken and voted in its ſupport; the ends for which it was commenced appeared now to him to be attained completely. Holland was at the commencement of the war in danger—That danger now no longer exiſted. The ſooner an honourable peace was concluded, the more it would conduce to the proſperity and happineſs of the country; that was his opinion, which, as a Britiſh peer, it was his duty in that houſe openly and freely to declare.

The arguments for the preſent expedi-

ency

ency of the war; which were urged before and after his royal highneſs had ſpoken, were very weighty and forcible; but as we have to ſtate the debate upon this ſubject in the houſe of commons, we ſhall only obſerve, that lord Guilford's motion for the previous queſtion being negatived, lord Grenville's amendment, expreſſing their lordſhip's approbation of the memorial was put and carried.

[To be continued.]

AFFAIRS OF FRANCE,

Continued from Vol. XCII, Page 463.

THE tranſactions of the 31ſt of May, and the 2d of June, are conſidered as a revolution. The violent party in the national convention, called the Mountain, headed by Marat and Roberſpierre, gained a complete victory over the moderate party, called the Valley, or the Girondoniſts, whoſe leaders they cauſed to be arreſted. A ſlight ſketch of the proceedings at a meeting of the municipality of Paris, previouſly to their ſending a deputation to demand the arreſt of the 22 members of the Valley, will evince the ſpirit by which they were actuated, and throw ſome light on the character of a man, who, as will appear in the ſequel, was doomed to periſh in the ſcenes of turbulence and anarchy in which he had been ſo long conſpicuous. At this meeting, Pache thus ſpoke: 'We are deſirous to preſent to the convention, this day, an addreſs, the ſucceſs of which intereſts the whole of the republic. The people of Paris, conſtantly on the watch, have learned that the convention has broken up its ſitting. It was to be dreaded that this unlucky accident would have given riſe to ſome exceſs on the part of thoſe who thus found themſelves fruſtrated; but the committee of public ſafety has convened for this night all the members of the convention on a meaſure of urgency. We can therefore preſent our addreſs this day; and Marat, who has repaired hither with me, propoſes to give you his advice on the preſent critical circumſtances.'—Marat inſtantly roſe: 'When a free people,' ſaid he, 'have confide their happineſs and intereſts to an authority conſtituted by themſelves, this people ought, uncontrovertibly, to have all proper confidence in their mandatories to reſpect their decrees, to avoid diſturbing them in their deliberations, and to hold them inviolable in the exerciſe of their functions. But if theſe repreſentatives of the people betray the confidence of their conſtituents—if the people, having inceſſant complaints to make, perceive that they have been deceived in their choice, or that thoſe they have choſen have been corrupted—if, in a word, the national repreſation, inſtead of ſaving, places the public weal in danger, then, citizens, the people ought to ſave themſelves, for they have no other reſource except their own energy. Riſe then, ſovereign people, preſent yourſelves to the convention, read your addreſs, and do not quit the bar until you obtain a definitive reply, which may guide you, ſovereign people, to act in a manner conformable to the maintenance of your rights and the defence of your intereſts. Such is the counſel I had to give to you.'

The council-general, in conſequence, named twelve commiſſioners, ſix belonging to the council, and ſix to the revolutionary committee, to repair, without delay, to the convention, and there preſent the projected addreſs.

At a ſubſequent meeting, after the 22 members of the Valley had been arreſted, Leclerc, a deputy of Lyons, alluding to this event, obſerved, that thoſe who, ſpeaking of the revolution, had aſſerted that it was accompliſhed, had erred egregiouſly. The impriſonment, he exclaimed, of ſuſpected perſons was one of the principal means of public ſafety. But, are all the ſuſpected perſons, incarcerated? I doubt it much; and the dangers are conſtantly the ſame. Why are you ſo ſlow in ridding yourſelves of your enemies? and why dread you the ſpilling of a few drops of blood?'

At theſe words, an univerſal diſapprobation drove the orator from the tribune, and the preſident called him to order. The procurator of the commune, pronounced on this ſubject an energetic diſcourſe. He demanded, that every man who ſhould propoſe the ſhedding of blood, ſhould be deemed a bad citizen.

When the convention met on Monday June 3, Marat ſtated by letter, that he would not enter on any duty as a legiſlator, until the lot of the men, whoſe puniſhment the people demanded, had been decided on. Baſire contended, that Marat ſhould be made to reſume his legiſlative functions. The convention paſſed to the order of the day on the declaration of Marat.

At

At this ſitting the convention received the following alarming account of an inſurrection in the department of Lozere, the late province of Gevaudan: 'The army of the rebels is ſaid to amount to 8000 men. Their progreſs is alarming. The city of Mende is in their hands; and at Marvejois they have murdered the adminiſtrators, burned the public archives, carried off the treaſury cheſt of the receiver of the diſtrict, impriſoned 80 patriots, delivered all the ſuſpected perſons who were incarcerated, re-eſtabliſhed the nuns in their convents, plucked up the tree of liberty, torn the tri-coloured flag, hoiſted the white ſtreamer, and celebrated a ſolemn maſs to thank heaven for victory. The adminiſtrator of the department demands money and arms.'—The convention referred this letter to the committee of public ſafety. They received intelligence alſo, that the Spaniards had invaded the department of the Eaſtern Pyrenees (the late province of Rouſſillon) and had cut off the communication between Perpignan, Collioure, &c. &c. A deſcent on the coaſt of the Mediterranean was dreaded; and the army of the republic was deſtitute of artillery. The convention decreed, that three companies of the cannoniers of Paris ſhall ſet out inſtantly for the department of the Eaſtern Pyrenees.

On the 4th of June, the proceedings of the convention ſeemed, at firſt, to take a ludicrous turn. A band of blacks of both ſexes, amid the ſound of martial muſic, and eſcorted by a great mob of pariſians, came to the hall, to return thanks to the legiſlators for having, in ſome degree, diſariſtocratized their black ſkin, which they deſired to have in future touched as tenderly as that of the whites. Gregoire ſeconded their demand, and the preſident, to manifeſt the favourable ſentiments he felt for their ſucceſs, laid hold of an old negreſs, and imprinted on her lips a civic kiſs! The old woman was then reſpectfully conducted to an arm-chair, and ſeated beſide the preſident, amid the loudeſt burſts of applauſe.

The gravity of this aſſembly of legiſlators was ſoon reſtored, however, by a deputation from the ſection des Arcis, which brought the ultimatum of the citizens inhabiting that ſection, demanding the forfeiture of the lives of the national deputies now in cuſtody, who ought, ſaid the deputation, to be ſummarily tried by a ſelect ſet of judges taken from each department. The convention decreed, that that, and all future addreſſes reſpecting their colleagues under arreſt, ſhall be referred to the committee of public ſafety.

A letter from the adminiſtrative bodies of St. Flour informed the convention, that the patriotic army, conſiſting of 4000 men, and three pieces of cannon, had gone out to attack the inſurgents of Merjevois, when they learned, that the army of the department of Aveiron (the late province of Rouergue) had already taken poſſeſſion of that place, where they had made 300 priſoners.—The victorious republicans were divided into two different corps, the one directing their route to Mende, while the other ſurrounded the rebels, whom they would doubtleſs defeat. The adminiſtrators concluded their letter with a poſtſcript, mentioning the defeat of the Sans Culotte at St. Chely, where they loſt four pieces of cannon.

On the 5th of June, Dolcet roſe, to make a very ſerious complaint: 'I accuſe,' ſaid he, 'that monſtrous authority, the pretended revolutionary committee, which will ſoon exerciſe over you a tyrannical ſway. It has violated the moſt ſacred of rights, that of the circulation of thought. The Journals have been ſtopped in the poſthouſe, where the letters have alſo been opened. A packet ſent to me by the commune of Reunes has been broken open by this committee, and a new ſeal placed on it, with this inſcription—Revolution of the 31ſt of May. All this tends to prove, that this committee means to be the ſupreme authority of the ſtate; that it has attempted a revolution, while it ſimply conſiſts of a ſedition of a band of miſcreants.' (Violent murmurs on the left ſide.) 'I demand juſtice on this committee, which I call counter-revolutionary.' (Murmurs.)

Fonfrede ſtated, that the populace were on foot to demand either the trial or the enlargement of the arreſted deputies. The committee ſhould make its report, or the convention ſhould decree that this report ſhould not be heard.—Maruyer boldly ſaid, 'I acknowledge no convention here, until the deputies, ſnatched forcibly from us, are allowed to be abſent under arreſt.

On the 6th of June, Lakanal, in the name of the committee of public inſtruction, made the following report: 'Citizens, the monuments of the arts, which embelliſh a variety of national buildings, receive daily the outrages of ariſtocracy, and ſometimes even thoſe of an unruly and licentious patriotiſm. Ineſtimable *chef-d'œuvres* are either broken or mutilated; and the arts weep thoſe irreparable loſſes.

loſſes. It is time that the convention ſhould put a ſtop to theſe fatal exceſſes. You have already adopted, legiſlators, a rigorous meaſure for the preſervation of the precious *morceaux* of ſculpture which decorate the national garden of the Thuilleries: The committee therefore propoſes to you, to generalize that decree, ſo as to extend to every national property whatever.' The convention immediately decreed the penalty of two years impriſonment againſt any one who ſhall do an injury to the monuments of art dependent on the national property.

A deputation from the city of Angers was then introduced, which thus addreſſed the convention:

'The people of Angers forget their own dangers when they learn thoſe which threaten the national convention. While our fellow-citizens are ſhedding their blood againſt the rebels, they are filled with indignation when they ſee, on the other hand, the ſections of a city, entruſted with the depoſit of the national repreſentation, calling forth againſt ſeveral of you the acts of proſcription. They are filled with indignation when they ſee the authors of the maſſacres of the 2d of September, and the conſpirators of the 10th of March, exciting triumph and applauſes which are due only to virtue, and reigning alone amid that chaos of anarchy which is their own work. Was it to deliver you up to the daggers of aſſaſſins that the people entruſted to you their powers? Since the people have eſtabliſhed you the depoſitaries of their power, can you believe that they will heſitate to cruſh thoſe reptiles who devour you? With regard to the miſſion with which you have been honoured, how have you diſcharged it? The people ſaid to you, Give us a conſtitution, which, by extinguiſhing anarchy, may ſerve as a point of rallying for all parties; and yet the time has been ſpent in ſcandalous debates, the finances are dilapidated, our navy is almoſt annihilated, and a civil war is kindled up in almoſt every corner of the land. The people ſaid to you, puniſh thoſe perfidious miniſters, who call themſelves the friends of the nation, in order that they may ruin it with the more ſafety; and yet not one of them has given in his accounts. The people ſaid to you, Give to our young citizens a national education worthy of liberty and equality; and yet they are abandoned, without guides, to the levity of their age, and to the corruption of example. The people ſaid to you, We wiſh to be free, but we wiſh our liberty to be founded upon virtue: but what have you done? It is not ſufficient to have ſtruck off the head of the tyrant, you muſt extinguiſh your own diviſions. We denounce to you the commiſſioners ſent into the departments. We requeſt that their conduct may be inveſtigated by a committee; and that the convention may hereafter employ itſelf only on the conſtitution.'

Thuriot ſpoke with great violence againſt this addreſs, aſſerting that it had been drawn out by the arreſted deputies, and ſent to the citizens of Angers to be preſented to the convention. He therefore moved the order of the day, which was decreed.

Another deputation, from the city of Arras, invited the convention to forget their diviſions; to expel thoſe unfaithful mandatories which exiſted among them, and to give to the people a conſtitution purely republican. The convention, after applauding this addreſs, ordered it to be printed, and inſerted in their minutes.

On the 7th of June, a letter from the procureur general ſyndic of the department of the Eaſtern Pyrennees announced the bombardment of Bellegarde by the Spaniards, who had raiſed a battery of 18 and 24 pounders, which produced a great effect. Le Fortin was already much damaged, and proviſions began to be exceedingly ſcarce in the place. A convoy had ſet out from Perpignan on the 25th, to carry proviſions to Mont de la Liberté, and had arrived there ſafe on the 26th. This, however, had not been the caſe with that deſtined for the forts de la Garde and des Bains. The commandant of the convoy had diſpoſed his troops in three columns to oppoſe the Spaniards. Thoſe of the left and right, inſtead of executing the commands which they had received, fell back on the centre, being miſled by perfidious officers. That of the centre had, however, merited the greateſt praiſe. The Spaniards loſt twelve men, and had a great many wounded; the French only ſix. Great part of the convoy entered Villefranche. The letter concluded thus: 'We loſt, on that day, an opportunity which will, perhaps, never more occur. The troops of the republic have been obliged to fall back before an enemy very inferior in number, whom they would have ſurrounded and conquered, had the plan been well directed. A ſtriking example is going to be made of the officers.'—The convention decreed, that honourable mention ſhould be made of the centre column.

Petion and Berotteau, put under a ſtate

of arreſt, wrote to the convention, that the meaſure propoſed by the committee of public ſafety, for ſending hoſtages into the departments, the deputies from which had been arreſted, appeared to them uſeleſs, and very ill calculated to avenge the inſult which had been offered to the national repreſentation. They requeſted that ſpeedy juſtice might be done them.—This was referred to the committee of public ſafety.

Albite and Dubois de Crancey wrote from Chamberry, dated June 2d, that a counter-revolution had been effected at Lyons; that the commiſſioners of the convention had been diſowned and ill treated; and that the warmeſt patriots had been expelled. They added, that they had requeſted general Kellerman to march a ſtrong body of troops againſt that city; and that they waited for the farther orders of the convention.

Saint-André obſerved, that a counter-revolution was effecting in all the great towns of the republic, in the name of liberty; that the inhabitants of Toulouſe had endeavoured to convoke the primary aſſemblies, and had put the beſt patriots under arreſt; that the people of Mount-Aubin wiſhed to follow this example; and, in ſhort, that the moderates and ariſtocrates were every where planting together the tree of re-union. He moved, therefore, that the commiſſioners Albite and Dubois de Crancy ſhould be authorized to purſue ſuch meaſures of general ſafety as they might think proper; and that the committee of public ſafety ſhould be charged to give in a report upon Lyons.'

After a very violent oppoſition, and the refuſal of ſeveral members to decide ſo raſhly on an object of ſuch importance, the propoſals of Saint-André were decreed; and moved, that this decree ſhould be ſent to Lyons by an extraordinary courier, which was adopted.

On the 8th of June, the following letter, dated June 6, was read: 'The adminiſtrative bodies of St. Flour, in a ſtate of permanence, to the national convention:

'Citizen preſident, the department of Lozere is ſaved; and the chief of the fanatical revolters, Charrier, as well as La Porte, his aid-de-camp, were made priſoners the night before laſt, by the detachment of Aveiron, poſted at Naſhinats.—They were afterward conveyed to Rodez, there to expiate their horrid crimes!'

On the 9th of June, the miniſter at war informed the convention, that 3000 royaliſts had advanced againſt Rochefort, and that a detachment of patriots had attacked their advanced guard, but had been obliged to fall back on the caſtle, and to ſhut themſelves up in it; that the royaliſts purſued them thither, and attacked them, but that a ſuperior force had driven them from the place.

The adminiſtrators of the department of Gironde (part of the late province of Guienne) ſent the following letter:

'Bourdeaux, June 6.

'Citizen repreſentatives,

'The details of your ſitting on the 31d of this month, are known in this city, and cries of vengeance reſound in all our public places, and even within the place of our meeting. A general impulſe of indignation and deſpair hurries all the citizens to their ſections, and deputations throng around us. There is no deſperate meaſure which is not propoſed to us. We cannot anſwer for the conſequences of this tranſport.'

The convention decreed, that all addreſſes ſhould be referred to the committee of public ſafety.

Thuriot moved, that the price of meat ſhould be taxed by the adminiſtrators of departments; that the French ſhould be invited to obſerve a Civic Lent for the month of Auguſt, to lower the price of proviſions; and that the venders of cattle ſhould be forced to ſell them at a price proportioned to that of meat. This was referred to the committee of public ſafety.

Ruth ſaid, that a German counteſs had died, and left a conſiderable ſucceſſion to a German count, a ſubject of the emperor, and reſident at Vienna. He moved that this ſucceſſion might be ſeized for the benefit of the nation, which was decreed.

The convention, uneaſy reſpecting the number of ſoldiers who flocked to Paris, decreed, that every ſoldier ſent to Paris, for any commiſſion ſhould not remain there longer than three days.

A ſecretary read the following letter:

'Rennes, June 6.

'The department of Ille and Villaine have juſt learned, with indignation and terror, the arreſt of ſeveral repreſentatives of the people. The conſtituted authorities, and all the citizens immediately met, and drew up an addreſs, the principles of which they will ſupport till death, and decreed the departure of an armed force. We have ſent you a coy of their addreſs and decree.'

This addreſs was read, and the decree of the department, (which was part of the late province of Brittany) for raiſing a battalion to go to Paris.

On the 10th of June, the convention decreed, that the troops of the line ſhould be incorporated with the volunteers.

Herault Sechelles, in the name of the committee of public ſafety, preſented the report on the conſtitution.

It was ordered to be printed, and to be ſent to the departments and to the armies.

On the 11th of June, Lacroix ſaid, that many departments took meaſures deſtructive of liberty; ſeveral of them raiſed forces againſt Paris; already a coalition exiſted, and the public contributions were ſtopped; ſeveral departments refuſed to acknowledge the national convention, and obſtructed the promulgation of the laws; ſeveral cowardly members had quitted their ſtation, to diſſeminate diſcord in the departments. He propoſed a call to-morrow, to know what members were abſent, legally or illegally; and he moved, that after to-morrow a freſh call ſhould take place, and that the ſubſtitutes abſent without lawful cauſe be called in. He further moved, that the national convention ſhould forbid the aſſembling of the adminiſtrative bodies to excite the meeting of the primary aſſemblies and to take any deliberative reſolution relative to the conſtitution, or the armed force, under pain of death; and that thoſe who ſhould carry theſe reſolutions into effect, be outlawed. On this Roux moved the order of the day to conſider the conſtitution. Fonfrede inſiſted, that there were no other means of rallying the French, than to appoint members to try the impeached and impriſoned deputies. Thuriot wiſhed the convention would diſcard all incidental motions, which delayed the progreſs of the conſtitution, and prevented their conſulting the proſperity of the nation. He propoſed, as the ſureſt means of avoiding a civil war, to outlaw all the deputies who had fled from the decree of arreſt, to ſpread diſſenſion in the departments. He moved that every citizen be free to ſeize them, either dead or alive. This was referred to the committee of public ſafety, to make a ſpeedy report; and they reſumed the diſcuſſion on the conſtitution.

A petitioner, in the name of the town of Laval, requeſted that all the decrees iſſued ſince the 30th of May be reviſed; that the impriſoned deputies be recalled into the boſom of the convention; that the attempt made upon the liberty of the preſs, in virtue of which act ſeveral journals had been ſuppreſſed or puniſhed, be reſcinded; that the municipality of Paris, which had exceeded its powers, be recalled to the ſimple exerciſe of its functions fixed by the law; that the convention do declare to the republic, whether oppreſſion reſtrains it from the free promulgation of the decrees ſuggeſted by its wiſdom, in order that the good patriots may come to protect the national repreſentation, and ſtifle anarchy.—Here a violent debate enſued, but it was decreed, that this petition be referred to the committee of public ſafety.

[To be continued.]

THE BRITISH MUSE.

EPITAPH on the Rev. Mr. BEIGHTON, Forty-five Years Vicar of Egham, in Surry.

By the late Mr. GARRICK.

NEAR half an age, with ev'ry good man's praiſe,
Among his flock the ſhepherd paſs'd his days.
The friend, the comfort of the ſick and poor,
Want never knock'd unheeded at his door.
Oft, when his duty call'd, diſeaſe and pain,
Strove to confine him, but they ſtrove in vain.
All moan his death, his virtues long they try'd;
They knew not how they lov'd him, till he dy'd.
Peculiar bleſſings did his life attend;
He had no foe, and Camden was his friend.

SONG, written by JAMES THOMSON, In his early Years, and afterward ſhaped for his AMANDA.

[From a MS. in the Collection of the Earl of Buchan.]

FOR ever, Fortune, wilt thou prove
An unrelenting foe to love;
And when we meet a mutual heart,
Come in between and bid us part;
Bid us ſigh on from day to day,
And wiſh and wiſh the ſoul away;
Till youth and genial years are flown,
And all the life of life is gone!
But buſy, buſy ſtill art thou,
To bind the loveleſs joyleſs vow,
The heart from pleaſure to delude,
And join the gentle to the rude;
For pomp, and noiſe, and ſenſeleſs ſhow,
To make us nature's joys forego,
Beneath a gay dominion groan,
And put the golden fetters on!

An-

ADDRESSED to the SHADE of THOMSON,

On crowning his Buſt with a Wreath of Bays, 1791.

By ROBERT BURN.

[From the Same.]

WHILE virgin Spring, by Eden's flood,
Unfolds her tender mantle green;
Or pranks the ſod in frolic mood,
Or tunes Eolian ſtrains between.

While Summer with a matron grace
Retreats to Dryburgh's cooling ſhade,
Yet oft delighted ſtops to trace
The progreſs of the ſpiky blade.

While Autumn, benefactor kind,
By Tweed erects her aged head,
And ſees, with ſelf-approving mind,
Each creature on her bounty fed.

While maniac Winter rages o'er
The hills whence claſſic Yarrow flows,
Rouſing the turbid torrents roar,
Or ſweeping wild a waſte of ſnows.

So long, ſweet poet of the year,
Shall bloom that wreath thou well haſt won,
While Scotia with exulting tear
Proclaims that Thomſon was her ſon.

EPIGRAM.

On ARCHERY.

WHILE fair Thaleſtris pois'd the ſhaft,
'How keen the point;' ſhe ſaid;
And when ſhe ſaw it lodg'd, ſhe laugh'd,
To think the wound it made.

'The arrow's point bites deep, fair maid,'
Replied a friend; 'But who,
Without the ſoften feather's aid,
Could aim that arrow true?'

Thus in your lovely ſex we find,
Each charm a pointed dart;
But 'tis the ſoftneſs of the mind
Muſt guide it to the heart.

On an INFLAMMATION in a LADY'S EYE.

STELLA's black eyes, of brighteſt hue,
Where'er they turn'd, admirers drew;
Not powerful leſs than Cupid's darts,
Her every glance pierc'd lovers' hearts;
The only ſafety was to fly 'em,
For all were ruin'd who came nigh 'em.
Thoſe whom her eyes had wretched made
At laſt applied to Jove for aid:
'O Jove, in mercy to mankind,
Make Stella, fatal charmer, blind!'
'To make her blind,' ſays he, 'were hard,
But be her eyes of power debarr'd,
And let them feel in turn the fire,
With which they every breaſt inſpire.'
But Cupid made no heart a prize,
Depriv'd of aid from Stella's eyes,
And pray'd to Jupiter once more,
Their former brightneſs to reſtore.

IMITATION of a Spaniſh Elegiac Sonnet of GARCILASSO DELLA VEGA.

'O hado executivo en mis dolores.'

O Cruel fate! that from a tree ſo fair,
The pride, the wonder of the plains around,
Could flowers and fruit in one fell moment tear,
And ſtrew, unpitying, on the thankleſs ground.

Here infant loves have met an early doom;
Loſt are my hopes, and all I priz'd below,
Now breathleſs lies within this narrow tomb,
Deaf to my plaints, regardleſs of my woe.

Theſe ſtreaming tears, thou dear departed ſhade,
For thy pale corſe poſſeſs no quick'ning power;
Yet ſhall the mournful tribute ſtill be paid,
And faſt, tho' fruitleſs, fall the conſtant ſhower:

Till welcome death, with lenient hand, reſtore
Its wonted peace to my enamour'd breaſt,
Cloſe theſe ſad eyes that view thee here no more,
And thoſe unſeal that ſhall behold thee bleſt!

THE WISH.

I'VE often wiſh'd to have a friend,
With whom my choiceſt hours to ſpend,
To whom I ſafely might impart
Each wiſh and weakneſs of my heart;
Who might in ev'ry ſorrow cheer,
Or mingle with my griefs a tear,
For whom alone I'd wiſh to be,
And who would only live for me;
And, to ſecure my bliſs for life,
I'd wiſh that friend to be a wife.

VERSES

On a Journey from Rome to Leghorn, while ſtanding on the Mountain juſt over Ponte Centino, which commands an extenſive View, on the one ſide of Tuſcany; on the other, that of the Eccleſiaſtical State. Written in May 1789.

WHILE on the mountain's top I ſtand
Juſt over where the waters glide,
Which Roma's deſolated barren land,
From fertile Tuſcany divide.

The ſelf ſame climate and warm ſun,
Almoſt the ſame the ſoil and air;
I aſk, 'ſo wretched why the one,
The other why ſo lovely fair?'

Plenty, throughout the Tuſcan ſtates,
In beauty's elegance of form,
Hangs gay feſtoons *; there angry fates,
Bid Deſolation pour the ſtorm.

O'er the vaſt plain, ſo far as ſight can ſpread,
The whole one blaſted burnt-up heath appears;
No tree to ſhade the fainting trav'ller's head;
His aching eye no pleaſing object cheers †.

Stretch'd on th' unwholeſome ground expiring lies
Unaided nature: from the diſmal place,
Diſcourag'd induſtry affrighted flies,
Conſign'd to Sloth and Begg'ry's loathſome face.

From unturn'd earth, unventilated air,
Aſcend foul vapours from ſtagnation bred:
Horrors and deaths, wrapt up in miſts, appear,
And clothe the mountains with redoubled dread.

See ſad creation with black clouds o'ercaſt
Mourn as her final doom were near at hand;
Already hath th' avenging angel paſt,
And with Deſtruction's boſom ſwept the land.

Fain the dire cauſe would Superſtition hide:
In yon curſt city's walls obſerve its plain,
Where prieſtly tyranny and papal pride
Have made Italia's ſuns to ſhine in vain.

Oh! how eſcap'd as from the gloom of night,
T' enjoy the bleſſed ſun's enliv'ning ray,
My heart drinks in this ſweet enchanting ſight,
Nature and all her ſons in holiday!

No more I truſt the voice of vulgar fame,
The hills, the vales, ev'n rocks with verdure crown'd,
And all that breathe, and all that feeds around,
Their ſov'reign and their father's praiſe proclaim.

LINES added by Mr. HASTINGS to MICKLE'S LUSIAD.

In the Tenth Book of the Luſiad of Camoens, the Goddeſs predicts to Gama the future Conqueſts of the Portugueſe in India. After detailing the heroic Actions of Pacheco, ſhe laments his Fate in the following Paſſage, to which Mr. Haſtings continuing the Predictions to his own Times, added the ſucceeding Lines, which are diſtinguiſhed by inverted Commas.

THE lofty ſong, for paleneſs o'er her ſpread,
The nymph ſuſpends, and bows the languid head;
Her faltering words are breath'd in plaintive ſighs,
Ah! Beliſarius! injur'd chief, ſhe cries,
Ah! wipe thy tears; in war thy rival ſee,
Godlike Pacheco falls deſpoil'd like thee;
In him, in thee, diſhonour'd Virtue bleeds,
And Valour weeps to view her faireſt deeds;
Weeps o'er Pacheco where forlorn he lies,
Deep in the dungeon's gloom, and friendleſs dies,

* 'Hangs gay feſtoons.' This is literally true; for all round the corn fields, which are moſtly laid out in a regular quadrangle, trees are planted at equal diſtances, and cloſe at the foot of every tree a vine on each ſide, which twining up the ſtem, to the height of ſix or ſeven feet, is thence conducted, (vines meeting vines from tree to tree) in all the various forms that taſte and fancy, happy in rich abundance, can give to the laughing face of nature.

† This in the forty miles between Civita Vecchia to Rome, and from Rome to Tuſcany, with few exceptions, is a true picture.

'Yet

'Yet ſhrink not, gallant Luſian, nor repine
'That man's eternal deſtiny is thine!
'Where'er ſucceſs th' advent'rous chief befriends,
'Fell Malice on his parting ſtep attends;
'On Britain's candidates for fame await,
'As now on thee, the ſtern decrees of fate.
'Thus are Ambition's fondeſt hopes o'erreach'd,
'One dies *impriſon'd*,—and one lives *impeach'd!*'

To DELIA.

OF earthly bliſs what moſt I wiſh to find,
Is the affection of a kindred mind,
From fair to fair ſtill ceaſeleſs turns my breaſt,
And ſeeks a love in which at laſt to reſt.
I boaſt not fortune's gifts, as little claim
The ſplendour of a long-deſcended name;
I only boaſt a heart with paſſion mov'd,
That, loving, likewiſe merits to be lov'd.
Say, Delia, ſay, could you for me forego
Of wealth the pleaſure, and the pomp of ſhow.
Theſe willingly reſign, content to prove
The humbleſt fortune with the man you love?
Pleas'd in his pleaſure, could you alſo ſhare,
And, by dividing, eaſe the load of care;
His labours with your tenderneſs beguile,
And cheer the frowns of fortune with a ſmile?
Could you, when moſt forſaken and diſtreſt,
Then cloſeſt claſp him to your friendly breaſt?
And to his woes, when hopeleſs of relief,
Afford the ſympathy of mingl'd grief?
When ſick, could you ſubmit my bed to tend?
When dying, ſmoothe my paſſage to my end?
And to my mem'ry, when departed, true,
My aſhes with a tender tear bedew?
Could you do this, what is there will not I
With patience ſuffer, or with courage try?
For you I'll bear to live, or dare to die;
Life ſtill will ſhow, and death confirm me true,
And my laſt thought ſhall fondly dwell on you.

INVOCATION to PATIENCE.

HAIL, meek-ey'd Patience, heavenly maid,
But ſent to earth to mortals aid,
To teach them to endure
The many ills which wait below
In cloſe ſucceſſion ſtill, and know
From death alone a cure!
Hail, Patience, and with thee Content,
That ever pleas'd with bleſſings ſent,
The woes of fate beguiles;
And Meekneſs too, with placid mien,
With brow unalter'd and ſerene,
That e'en in ſorrow ſmiles:
And Fortitude attend thy train,
Superior to the ills of pain,
That ſtill defies the ſtroke;
And Reſignation too be there,
In ſilence ſkill'd each ill to bear,
And bow beneath the yoke!
Be theſe in every ſcene diſplay'd,
When fainting Nature calls for aid,
And with them Hope be given,
That through misfortunes darkeſt ſky
Emits a beam to cheer the eye,
And point the path to Heaven.

THE THEATRE.

ON Saturday, June 29, a new Comedy, in three acts, called The LONDON HERMIT, or RAMBLES in DORSETSHIRE, was performed for the firſt time, at Colman's theatre in the Haymarket. This comedy is from the prolific pen of Mr. O'Keeffe. The principal characters were thus repreſented:

Mr. Whimmy, Mr. Suett; Mr. Pranks, Mr. Aickin; George Pranks, Mr. Banniſter, jun. Peregrine, Mr. Evatt; Tully, Mr. Johnſtone; Barleycorn, Mr. Benſon; Toby, Mr. Parſons; Countryman, Mr. Burton; Barebone, Mr. Wewitzer; Poz, Mr. Barrett; Apathy, Mr. Bland; Nat. Maggs, Mr. Palmer, jun.—Kitt Barleycorn, Mrs. Kemble; Miſs Whimmy, Miſs Heard; Mrs. Maggs, Mrs. Webb.

The fable is as follows: Mr. Whimmy having acquired a large fortune in India, has taken up his reſidence in a village in Dorſetſhire. Being fond of the marvellous, his grounds are laid out in an extravagant ſtyle, and are open to public inſpection one day in every week; but to complete the whole, he wants a perſon to reſide in a hermitage for the ſpace of ſeven years, for which he offers two thouſand pounds, and three hundred a year for the remainder

remainder of their life, for any one who would undertake it. George Pranks, a wild youth, is ſuffered by his uncle to be confined in the King's bench, whence, however, he eſcapes, being bailed by Barebone, a money-lending preacher. George goes to Blandford races, where he loſes all his money, and ſeeing Kitty Barleycorn in a returned chaiſe, he gets in with her, careleſs where he goes, and by which he is brought to a public-houſe, kept by her father, adjoining 'ſquire Whimmy's. Here he meets his friend Peregrine, who is upon the eve of marriage with miſs Whimmy. Relating his ſituation, and giving up all hopes of relief from his uncle Peregrine, he recommends him to become the Hermit, to which he aſſents. At this time, Mr. Pranks comes to claim an ancient promiſe of Mr. Whimmy; namely, that of the 'ſquire's daughter for his nephew George, whom he then conceives to be in the King's-bench.

After a variety of incidents, the parties all meet; and the young lovers are united according to their wiſhes. Both George and his uncle Pranks concluding that birth is not neceſſary to render virtue amiable, feel no diſcredit in an union with Kitty Barleycorn, although the daughter of an innkeeper.

CONTINENTAL ADVICES.

SARDINIA and SPAIN.

Turin, June 1.

INtelligence has been received here, that on the 21ſt ult. the Spaniſh fleet, conſiſting of twenty-three ſhips of the line and ſix frigates, under the command of admiral Borgia, entered the gulph of Palma, having taken one French frigate, and obliged another to run on ſhore on the iſland of St. Pietro.—*Lond. Gaz.*

Turin, June 15. Intelligence has been received here, that on the 12th inſt. a body of about 10,000 French troops attempted to diſlodge the advanced poſts of the Sardinian army at Raus and Authion, in the county of Nice, commanded by the general baron Colli and baron Dellera, and, after an engagement which laſted eight hours without interruption, were repulſed on all ſides, and driven into the vallies, with the loſs of about 800 men killed and 1500 wounded, beſide a number taken priſoners. The loſs on the part of the Sardinians amounts to between forty and fifty killed, and about 200 wounded.—*Ib.*

Aranjeuz, June 11. An account has been publiſhed by this government of admiral Borja's late ſucceſsful expedition againſt the iſlands of St. Peter and St. Antiocha; and the following is the principal article of capitulation on which the iſland of St. Peter ſurrendered:

I. The king and Spaniſh nation, being conſtant in their characteriſtic of humanity, even toward their enemies, as has been always experienced, I agree, in the name of his Catholic majeſty, that the commandant of marine, with his ſoldiers and ſailors, ſhall march out, with military honours, from the fortreſs of the iſland of St. Peter, which they occupy, leaving all their arms in the place, and embarking as priſoners of war on board the king's ſhips, without any officer, ſoldier, ſailor, or dependent of the French nation, being deprived of any of their property, in the poſſeſſion of which they are to remain undiſturbed.

Don FRANCISCO DE BORJA.

On board the Royal Charles, at anchor off the iſland of St. Peter, May 25, 1793.

Theſe conditions were accepted by the captain of the frigate which was burnt, and by the commander of all the troops on the iſland; the latter officer requeſting that the inhabitants of the iſland might be humanely treated on its being delivered up to his Sardinian majeſty.—*Lond. Gaz.*

Madrid, July 3. The fortreſs of Bellegarde ſurrendered to the Spaniſh troops on the 25th ult. The garriſon, conſiſting of near a thouſand men, are to remain priſoners of war.—*Lond. Gaz.*

RUSSIA.

Whitehall, July 13. The empreſs of Ruſſia publiſhed an edict at St. Peterſburgh on the 8th of April laſt, prohibiting all trade and intercourſe with France; and alſo prohibiting the importation into the Ruſſian empire of any French merchandize, either in Ruſſian or foreign ſhipping, or by land. The edict alſo contains a general prohibition of the importation of a conſiderable number of articles from any foreign country.—*Lond. Gaz.*

GREAT BRITAIN, AUSTRIA, and PRUSSIA.

Whitehall, July 13. This morning one of his majeſty's meſſengers arrived with a diſpatch from colonel ſir James Murray,

Murray, bart. adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highneſs the duke of York, to the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, of which the following is a copy.

Sir, Eſtreux, July 10.

I have the honour to acquaint you, that the governor of Conde has this day conſented to ſurrender that place to the Imperial forces under the command of the prince of Wirtemberg, by whom it had been blockaded for ſome time paſt.

The Auſtrian troops are to be put in immediate poſſeſſion of the detached works, and of one of the gates of the town (that leading to Tournai.) The garriſon is to ſurrender as priſoners of war, and to march out upon the 13th. The other articles of the capitulation are not yet arranged.

This is a conqueſt of the utmoſt importance; Conde being one of the ſtrongeſt places of this frontier, requiring but a ſmall garriſon for its defence, commanding the navigation of the Scheld, and facilitating any future operation. I have the honour to be, &c.

JAMES MURRAY.

HOLLAND.

Hague, July 1. The ſentence of the court Van Byland, governor of Breda, for the very ſhameful ſurrender of that fortreſs, has been finally pronounced. He will only ſuffer the forms of the puniſhment which he ſo well deſerved, as he is condemned to have the fatal axe brandiſhed over his head, by the ignominious hands of the common hangman; after which he is to ſuffer perpetual impriſonment in the Dutch ſtate priſon of Loverſkein. He is therefore to be ſpeedily tranſferred hence, and conducted to the very ramparts of Breda, there to ſuffer one part of his ſentence.

The commandant of the corps of engineers who was at Breda, and who, by his falſe report reſpecting the ſtate, the reſources, and means of defence of this principal key of our republic, did not a little contribute to its being delivered up to the French, will be caſhiered, and declared infamous.

The other ſeventeen officers, who were members of the council of war, in which the ſurrender was reſolved, are to be impriſoned twelve months and ſix weeks. The expences of the ſuit againſt theſe delinquents muſt be paid by them alone; and the contingent which the puſillanimous count Van Byland has to pay, amounts alone to 40,000 Dutch florins.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

JUNE 25.

YEſterday, at a common hall held at Guildhall, Peter Perchard, eſq. citizen and goldſmith, and Charles Hamerton, eſq. citizen and bricklayer, were choſen ſheriffs for the year enſuing; and John Wilkes, eſq. was re-elected chamberlain.

JUNE 26.

The attorney-general came to the Old-Bailey, and informed the court, that he attended, in conſequence of the extraordinary verdict found by the jury upon the trial of Mr. Eaton, who was indicted laſt ſeſſion for publiſhing the ſecond part of Paine's Rights of Man, when the jury found the defendant guilty of publiſhing, but without any criminal intention. [*See Vol. XCII. page* 467.] Notice had been given him, that upon the foundation of this verdict the bail of Mr. Eaton intended to make an application to be diſcharged from their recognizance. The attorney-general ſaid, it was a caſe of conſiderable importance, and he was then ready to argue it, or receive ſuch directions from the judges as they might think fit to give. It would be a queſtion for the judges to decide what the legal import of the verdict was. The caſe was diſtinguiſhed by its novelty, and it was of great concern to the juriſprudence of the country, that the law ſhould be ſettled upon this point.

The judges Buller and Wilſon were of opinion, that the verdict called for the moſt ſerious deliberation. There was ſome difficulty in aſcertaining what the intention of the jury was when they pronounced this verdict. It would be neceſſary to conſider whether it amounted to any verdict at all; and if it did, whether it was an acquittal in part, or as to the whole of the charge upon the record?

Mr. juſtice Wilſon ſaid, the jury poſſibly might mean that the ſentiments contained in Paine's pamphlet were not criminal. After ſome converſation between the judges Buller, Wilſon, and the recorder, it was agreed that the caſe ſhould be laid before all the judges, in order that they might enter the proper verdict, and ſettle

the law upon this point. No counſel attended for the defendant.

JUNE 29.

Yeſterday, in the court of common pleas at Guildhall, on Friday, was tried before lord chief juſtice Eyre, and a ſpecial jury, an action brought by Mr. Palliſer, againſt the proprietors of a mail-coach, to recover ſatisfaction in damages, for injury done to the plaintiff's wife, through negligence of the driver and the guard, leaving Mrs. Palliſer in the coach while they went to drink at a public-houſe between Sheffield and Leeds, there being no other paſſengers or any perſon to take care of the horſes, which took fright, by which accident Mrs. Palliſer had her leg broke. The jury found a verdict for the plaintiff, damages 500l.

Whitehall, July 2. The following Letter was received from Brigadier-general Ogilvie to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, one of his Majeſty's Principal Secretaries of State, dated Iſland of St. Pierre, May 18, 1793.

Sir,

I have the honour to acquaint you, that the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon ſurrendered at diſcretion to his majeſty's forces on the 14th inſtant.

In obedience to his majeſty's commands, ſignified to me in your letter of the 15th of February, having conſulted at Halifax with captain Affleck, commanding his majeſty's ſhip Alligator, I embarked, without loſs of time, for the attack of theſe iſlands, with a detachment of the royal artillery, and 310 rank and file, with officers and non-commiſſioned officers in proportion, of the 4th and 65th regiments, on board that ſhip, a king's ſchooner, and three tranſports, and ſailed on the 7th inſtant.

On the 14th, about day-break, we made the iſland of St. Pierre; and captain Affleck having made a diſpoſition to proceed by the channel of Miquelon, a convenient place in that ſtrait for debarking the troops offering, and our information from different quarters (however imperfect) giving us reaſon to ſuppoſe that a French frigate was in the harbour, and of the further defences, of which we had not been able to gain any real intelligence, I propoſed to captain Affleck to land the troops, that an attack by ſea and land might be made at the ſame time; with which he perfectly coincided: and accordingly I landed, with great part of the troops, in the Auce à Savoyard, about five miles to the weſtward of the town, and proceeded toward it, ſending a ſummons from captain Affleck and myſelf to the commander, for the immediate ſurrender of the iſland; when an anſwer being returned, demanding terms of capitulation, they were decidedly refuſed. The troops continued their march, and having reached, without oppoſition, the heights above the town, the Alligator at the ſame time appearing in ſight of the harbour, the commandant, monſieur Danſville, (who from circumſtances was under the direction of the commune of the iſland) ſurrendered the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon at diſcretion; and poſſeſſion was immediately taken of the battery and places of defence near the town and harbour.

The garriſon conſiſted of between 80 and 100 men only, but there were upward of 500 French fiſhermen (excluſive of the inhabitants) in the town; who, had they been prepared and well armed, might have made great oppoſition. They had likewiſe begun to put in a ſtate of defence the battery of eight 26 pounders, which effectually defended the harbour.

If, from fortunate events, no opportunity offered for the troops to diſtinguiſh themſelves, it would be doing the greateſt injuſtice both to officers and men if I did not, in the ſtrongeſt terms, mention their good conduct, diſcipline, and regularity; the ſlighteſt depredation not having been committed on any of the inhabitants by the troops I have the honour to command, in a place taken in the manner above ſtated.

I incloſe a return of the ordnance and military ſtores taken on the iſland; and have the honour to be, with the greateſt reſpect, ſir,

Your moſt obedient, humble ſervant,

JAMES OGILVIE, brigadier-general.

To the right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

[Here follows the return of ordnance, &c.]

Admiralty-office, June 30, 1793. Extract of a Letter from Captain William Affleck, Commander of his Majeſty's Ship Alligator, to Mr. Stephens, dated St. Pierre, May 20, 1793.

I acquainted my lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, in my letter of the 2d ult. from Halifax, that, in obedience to their lordſhips orders, I intended ſailing on the 6th inſtant, with brigadier-general Ogilvie and tranſports, taking with me the Diligente armed ſchooner, to attack the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon.

You will be pleaſed to inform their lordſhips the tranſports were not ready to receive

receive the troops till the 7th, on which day I ſailed with them, having on board the 4th and part of the 65th regiments, with a detachment of the royal artillery. At two A. M. on the 14th, made the iſland of St. Pierre; hove to with the convoy till day-break. Brigadier-general Ogilvie propoſed, as we had intelligence of a French frigate being in the harbour, (however imperfect) that, in order to ſecure the iſland, would be to effect a landing on the weſtward. I perfectly coincided with the general, who accordingly landed with part of the troops. I ordered the tranſports to follow, and immediately made ſail for the harbour. The incloſed ſummons from the general and myſelf was immediately ſent to the commandant for the immediate ſurrender of the iſlands. An anſwer was returned, demanding terms of capitulation, but decidedly refuſed. Monſieur Danſeville, the commandant, then ſurrendered at diſcretion the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon to his majeſty's forces. Their garriſons conſiſted of near 100 men, and upward of 500 French fiſhermen, excluſive of the inhabitants of the town. They were putting their battery in a ſtate of defence, mounting eight 26 pounders and four ſix pounders, which effectually defends the harbour. I have captured eighteen ſmall veſſels with fiſh, and two American ſchooners with proviſions and naval ſtores.

His Britannic Majeſty's Ship Alligator, off St. Pierre's Harbour, May 14, 1793.

We demand the immediate ſurrender of the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, to his Britannic majeſty's ſea and land forces. No capitulation will be allowed, but every indulgence granted to priſoners of war that is cuſtomary from Britiſh commanders.

WILLIAM AFFLECK, commander of his majeſty's ſhip Alligator.

JAMES OGILVIE, Brigadier-general.

To the commandant of the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon.

JULY 4.

The following extract of a letter from a gentleman on board the ſhip Shaw Ardaſier, to his friend at Calcutta, dated December 23, off Saugur Iſland, is taken from the Calcutta Gazette of January 1.—The unfortunate youth, who is the ſubject of it, was the ſon of ſir Hector Munro, K. B.

'Yeſterday morning, I went on ſhore on Saugur iſland, to ſhoot deer; accompanied by lieutenant Pyefinch, Mr. Downey, and my late unfortunate friend, Mr. Munro. We ſaw innumerable tracks of tygers and deer; but we purſued our ſport till three in the afternoon. We then ſat down on the edge of the jungle to eat ſome cold meat, and had but juſt begun, when Mr. Pyefinch and a black ſervant told us, there was a fine deer within ſix yards of us. Mr. Downey and I immediately jumped up to take our guns: mine was the neareſt, and I had but juſt laid hold of it, when I heard a roar, and ſaw an immenſe royal tyger ſpring on the unfortunate Munro, who was ſitting down. In a moment his head was in the beaſt's mouth, and he ruſhed into the jungle with him, with as much eaſe as I could lift a kitten; tearing him through the thickeſt buſhes and trees, every thing yielding to his monſtrous ſtrength. The agonies of horror and fear (for there were two tygers, a male and female) ruſhed on me at once. The only effort I could make, was to fire at him, though the poor youth was ſtill in his mouth. I relied partly on Providence, partly on my own aim, and fired a muſquet. I ſaw the tyger ſtagger, and cried out ſo immediately. Mr. Downey then fired two ſhots, and I one more. We retired from the jungle, and a few minutes after Mr. Munro came up to us, all over blood, and fell. We took him on our backs to the boat, and got every medical aſſiſtance for him from the Valentine Indiaman, which lay at anchor near the iſland, but in vain. He lived twenty-four hours in the extreme of torture: his head and ſcull were all torn and broke to pieces, and he was wounded by the claws all over his neck and ſhoulders; but it was better to take him away, though irrecoverable, than leave him to be devoured limb by limb. We have juſt read the funeral ſervice over the body, and committed it to the deep. He was an amiable and promiſing youth.

'I muſt obſerve, there was a large fire blazing cloſe to us, compoſed of ten or a dozen whole trees. I made it myſelf on purpoſe to keep the tygers off, as I had always heard it would. There were eight or ten of the natives about us; many ſhots had been fired at the place, and much noiſe and laughing at the time; but this ferocious animal diſregarded all. He was about four and a half feet high and nine long. His head appeared as large as an ox's, his eyes darting fire, and his roar, when he firſt ſeized his prey, will never be out of my recollection. We had ſcarcely puſhed our boat from that curſed ſhore,

when the tygreſs made her appearance, raging mad almoſt, and remained on the ſand as long as the diſtance would allow me to ſee her.'

JULY 5.

The Swallow, capt. Brooks, is arrived at Falmouth in 26 days paſſage from Gibraltar, with diſpatches from admiral Coſby. She brings intelligence of his majeſty's ſhip Egmont having taken a Spaniſh galleon, one of the richeſt ever taken; and captured the French frigate which took the galleon ſeveral days before the galleon was retaken. The French frigate is one of the new conſtruction, mounts 42 guns, quite new, and this the only prize ſhe had taken. Captain Brook alſo ſays, that the Iris frigate came into Gibraltar a few days before he left it, under jury-maſts, having had an engagement with a French frigate, who left them in the night. The Iris had ſeven killed, and 30 wounded.

JULY 6.

On Tueſday died Mr. F. Walſh, of Nottingham, in conſequence of a mortal wound he received on his Majeſty's birth-day from his own ſon, who ſportfully diſcharged a piſtol cloſe to his father; the wadding unfortunately penetrated his body beyond the ſkill of the phyſician, and he died in inexpreſſible agonies.

JULY 8.

This morning, about one o'clock, a fire broke out in the painters workſhop at the king's dock-yard, Deptford, which entirely conſumed the ſame, and great part of the joiner and carver's ſhop which was adjoining. By the exertions of the artificers and ſhipwrights belonging to the king's and the other dock-yards, and by pulling down about fifteen feet length of working-ſheds, the flames were got under without doing further damage. The premiſes conſumed were near the deal yard, and had the wind been from the ſouthward, in all probability great miſchief would have enſued.

JULY 11.

This day, Mr. Eaton (againſt whom the late remarkable verdict was found) was tried in the court of King's bench for publiſhing a libel, entitled "A Letter addreſſed to the Addreſſers, &c." After lord Kenyon had delivered his charge, the jury withdrew, about an hour and an half, and then found the defendant *Guilty of publiſhing*.

Lord Kenyon. Gentlemen, I am afraid the court muſt expect a verdict of guilty or not guilty. The law has committed the buſineſs to you.

Foreman. We have conſidered this buſineſs, my lord, and this is the only verdict we can give—*Guilty of publiſhing*.

Lord Kenyon. I have no right to aſk where your doubts are. If you have any doubts, I ſhall endeavour to remove them. If you have not, I do not wiſh to ſay any thing voluntarily.

Foreman. My Lord, we have conſidered it as much as poſſible among ourſelves, and we can give no other verdict.

Lord Kenyon. I do not know very well what it means, whether it implies guilty or not guilty. You are bound and ſworn to try this iſſue—whether the defendant is guilty or not guilty.

Upon this the gentlemen of the jury withdrew again for near an hour, to reconſider their verdict. They then found the defendant *Guilty of publiſhing the pamphlet in queſtion*.

Lord Kenyon. This is certainly the ſame verdict. If you perſiſt in it, I cannot help it. It muſt be recorded.

Foreman. My Lord, we have maturely inveſtigated this buſineſs, and cannot agree on any other verdict.

JULY 12.

Accounts from Paris, dated July 1, ſay, that captain J. Pinou, of the privateer Dugay-Trouin, has written to the miniſter of the marine, that having taken and carried into port an Engliſh ſhip coming from Bombay, the captain of that ſhip gave the following detail:

"On the 30th of December 1791, being in the lat. of 9 deg. S. and 259 deg. W. long. of London, coming from Jacqueſon going to Bombay, and wiſhing to go by the Eaſtern paſſage, I was informed of a ſhipwreck on the coaſt of New Georgia, in the Eaſtern ſea. This ſhip could only be a French one, as no other ſhip or frigate paſſed theſe Straits but two Engliſh frigates, which have ſince arrived in England. There is the greateſt probability that it is the Bouſſole or the Aſtrolabe. I have drawn the plan and the exact chart of this continent, with the remarks on the latitude and longitude. Cape Exception, or Cape Deceit, forms the entrance of the bay in which the before-mentioned veſſel was ſhipwrecked."

Capt. Pinou conducted the Engliſh captain, on his arrival, to the committee of ſuperintendence at St. Maloe's, where he made a circumſtantial depoſition of all theſe details.

JULY 13.

The honourable Mr. Butler, and Mr. Bond, have been remanded to the Newgate of Dublin, after an argument in the Exchequer

chequer chamber upon their habeas corpus. The chief baron obſerved, that, as the houſe of lords was then ſitting, any error in the commitment ſhould be ſubmitted to their lordſhips.

The lord chancellor of Ireland has brought into the houſe of lords of that kingdom, "a Bill to prevent the Aſſembly of Conventions, or Meetings, purporting to repreſent the people, or any part of them, under pretence of petitioning the Legiſlature for a redreſs of alleged grievances or complaints."

JULY 17.

Lieutenant Broughton, of his majeſty's brig Chatham, arrived at the Admiralty Office. Some time in October laſt he left captain Vancouver, of his majeſty's ſhip Diſcovery, at Nootka Sound, and put into Cadiz, whence he went to Madrid. From that capital he made the beſt of his way to Liſbon, whence he landed at Falmouth. The Chatham brig is now on her paſſage to England.

The immediate object of lieutenant Broughton's coming home, is to acquaint our government of the conduct of the Spaniſh governor of Nootka, in regard to the ratification of the treaty of Spain. We are ſorry to ſay that the governor has wholly refuſed to comply with the terms of that treaty in ſurrendering the diſtrict about Nootka. Captain Vancouver was ſent out to take poſſeſſion; and the negociation between him and the Spaniſh governor went on very quietly, until the arrival of an American ſhip there, the captain of which perſuaded the governor that the whole ſtipulation of the treaty was to cede to the Engliſh a ſmall ſpot, conſiſting of one hut only, and four old cannon placed about it. This captain Vancouver, of courſe, refuſed to accept; and under theſe circumſtances, lieutenant Broughton was ſent home.

JULY 18.

At the laſt aſſizes in the town of Derby, two perſons were tried for vending Paine's Rights of Man. Both juries inſiſted on reading the pamphlet in queſtion, and afterwards found the defendants Not Guilty.

JULY 19.

On Wedneſday morning, between ſeven and eight o'clock, the tide flowed into the harbour of Plymouth, in a very extraordinary and rapid manner; it roſe two feet perpendicular in nine minutes, and as rapidly receded again, and this it did three times in the ſpace of leſs than an hour; it ran ſo very ſwift into the pool, that it was impoſſible for a faſt rowing boat to make head againſt it; one veſſel loſt her bowſprit, by being run foul of by another that became perfectly unmanageable, owing to the rapidity of the current. Nothing of the kind has been obſerved here ſince the great earthquake at Liſbon, when the tide flowed and ebbed nearly in the ſame extraordinary manner.

JULY 20.

A French privateer was taken and carried into Oſtend, within a few hours after her ſailing from Dunkirk. The captain was killed in the engagement, and his ſon, a boy of about 12 years of age, was among the number of priſoners. As ſoon as ſir William Erſkine heard of theſe circumſtances, he ſent a trumpet with the boy to the neareſt French poſt, in order that he might be conveyed to his mother at Dunkirk.

Marat, the member of the French national convention, ſo much diſtinguiſhed as the ſuppoſed inſtigator of many of the dreadful maſſacres and aſſaſſinations that have taken place in France, ſince the 10th of Auguſt laſt, was himſelf aſſaſſinated on the 14th of July by a woman, who was immediately ſeized, has been ſince tried and condemned by the revolutionary tribunal, and executed accordingly.—The particulars of this extraordinary tranſaction will be given in due courſe, in our article of the Affairs of France.

JULY 21.

On Thurſday at the quarter ſeſſions for Cambridge, Mr. John Cook, baker, in the Petty-curry, was tried on an indictment found againſt him on the laſt January ſeſſions, for uttering ſeditious words. It was ſome time before a jury could be formed, nineteen of the pannel being objected to; when, after hearing the evidence, and a very ingenious ſpeech from the defendant's counſel, the jury brought in their verdict, Guilty. The ſentence of the court was, that the defendant, John Cook, be impriſoned three months in the town gaol, to pay a fine of 40s. and to find ſureties for ſix years, himſelf in 100l. and two ſureties in 50l. each.

JULY 22.

A cauſe of conſiderable importance to perſons poſſeſſed of eſtates in any of his majeſty's foreſts, was determined at Winchester aſſizes. It was brought by Mr. Barfoot, of Midlington-place, in that county, againſt Mr. Bryant of Haſlemere, and other king's officers, for a treſpaſs on the premiſes of Mr. Barfoot, in the foreſt of Bere, by deſtroying the fences, and laying the encloſures open, under an idea that the farm had been clandeſtinely taken out of the foreſt. The trial laſted nine hours, when the jury gave a verdict for the plaintiff.

tiff. This deciſion confirms the grand ſtatute of limitation againſt the crown: peaceable poſſeſſion of an eſtate for 60 years is a good title againſt the king, independent of all title deeds or claims whatſoever.

Lately died at Maryport in Cumberland, Mr. John Milliken, at the great age of 112 years, having been born in the pariſh of Bridekirk in July 1681.

JULY 25.

Surry aſſizes commenced on Monday at Croydon, before judge Buller. Robert Walpole Chamberlain was indicted for feloniouſly aſſaulting Humphrey Bellamy, eſq. on the king's highway, and putting him in fear, and forcibly taking from his perſon a gold watch, and ſundry other things, his property. Mr. Bellamy depoſed, that on the 6th of June 1791, he, in company with Mrs. Bellamy, his wife, was ſtopped in a poſt chaiſe by three footpads near Epſom, who demanded his watch and money, and threatened to blow his brains out if he refuſed; that he (Mr. Bellamy) preſented a piſtol at them, and ſaid he was ready for them; on which the priſoner fired a piſtol into the carriage, and immediately afterward, with one of his companions, dragged Mr. Bellamy out of the chaiſe, took his watch and money from him, and then wounded him with a cutlaſs in a very dangerous manner. Mrs. Bellamy corroborated the whole of her huſband's evidence, and poſitively ſwore to the perſon of the priſoner, who, ſhe depoſed, took bank-notes from her to the amount of 90l. telling her that he would blow her brains out if ſhe turned her head, and that he would learn Mr. Bellamy to carry piſtols again; that on the 1ſt of May laſt, ſhe was ſent for to the New Gaol in the Borough, where ſhe immediately recollected the priſoner, who turned from her, and could not be prevailed upon to look her in the face.—Guilty, Death.

AMERICA.

Norfolk, (Virginia) April 18. By an act of the United States, paſſed in March 1791, which is ſtill in force, the importation of diſtilled ſpirits in caſks of leſs capacity than fifty gallons, ſubjected the ſpirits, and ſhip or veſſel in which it ſhould be brought, to ſeizure; and an act of the next ſeſſion of congreſs 1792, repeals that clauſe, and impoſes the ſame penalties on the importation of ſpirits in caſks leſs than ninety gallons.

Another act paſſed, the 2d of May 1792, prohibiting the importation of beer, ale, or porter, from any foreign country, in caſks leſs than forty gallons, or in packages containing leſs than ſix dozen bottles, on pain of forfeiture of the ſaid beer, ale, or porter, and of the ſhip or veſſel in which the ſame ſhall be brought. This act is in force from the laſt day of December 1792.—*Lond. Gaz.*

MARRIAGES.

LORD Inverary, ſon of the earl of Kintore, to miſs Mary Bannerman.

Francis Daſhwood, eſq. to lady Anne Maitland, ſiſter to the earl of Lauderdale.

John Wilmot, eſq. M. P. to miſs Haſlam, daughter of the late col. Haſlam.

Alexander Maclean, eſq. to lady Mary Hope, daughter of the late earl of Hopetoun.

Samuel Eſtwick, eſq. ſon of Samuel Eſtwick, eſq. M. P. to the hon. miſs Hawke.

Hon. Fletcher Norton, brother to lord Grantley, to miſs Caroline Eliſabeth Balmain, daughter to the late James Balmain, eſq.

DEATHS.

RIchard Naſſau viſcount Moleſworth.

James Veitch lord Elliock, one of the ſenators of the college of juſtice in Scotland.

Thomas lord Foley.

Sir Ceſar Hawkins, bart.

Hon. and Rev. Nicholas Boſcawen, uncle to viſcount Falmouth.

Hon. Mr. Herbert, ſon of lord Herbert.

Robert lord Fairfax.

Hon. Robert Campbell Southwell, brother to lord Clifford.

Edmund viſcount Mountgarret.

Richard Neville Neville, eſq. father of the M. P. for Reading.

PROMOTIONS.

CAptain Edward Pellew—Knighted.

Earl of Hertford—Marquis of Hertford and earl of Yarmouth.

Lord Porcheſter—Earl of Carnarvon.

George Poyntz Ricketts, eſq.—Governor of Tobago.

Right hon. Henry Dundas—Cuſtos Rotulorum of Middleſex.

John Anſtruther, eſq.—Juſtice of the counties of Carnarvon, Merioneth, and Angleſea.

William Grant, eſq.—Juſtice of Carmarthen, Pembroke, and Cardigan.

Right hon. John Spencer—Envoy extraordinary to the court of Sweden.

Francis Drake, esq.—Minister Plenipotentiary to the republic of Genoa.

George Henry Rose, esq.—Secretary of legation to the court of Berlin.

James Craufurd, esq.—Secretary of legation to the court of Copenhagen.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

JUNE 29.

Joseph Sheriff, of Hereford, cordwainer.

John Lillwall, Richard Lillwall, and Benjamin Lillwall, of Kingston, in Herefordshire, skinners.

Thomas Gibbs, of Stoke, in Staffordshire, shopkeeper.

Henry Gilliam, and Lawrence Price, of Briſtol, carpenters.

Charles Jones, of Kingston, in Herefordshire, mercer.

John Brooke, of Aston, in Warwickshire, dealer.

Thomas M'Clelland, of Carpenter's-buildings, London-wall, merchant.

John Richardson, of St. Andrew, in Hertford, brick-maker.

Paul Smith, of Pembridge, in Herefordshire, dealer in wool.

John Ibbotson, of Linton, and James Ibbotson the younger, of Burnsall, in Yorkshire, jobbers.

James Stevens, of Briſtol, glass-manufacturer.

Peter Biggs the elder, of Fish-ſtreet-hill, undertaker.

Thomas Johnson, of the Dog-row, Bethnal-green, cowkeeper.

William Mobbs, of Birmingham, hatter.

John Moule, and James Moule, of Whitechapel, linen-drapers.

John Owen, of Coventry, ribbon-manufacturer.

JULY 2.

John Murray, of Lynne, in Norfolk, linen-draper.

William Etches, of Northampton, grocer.

Richard Lucas, of Louth, in Lincolnshire, worſted-manufacturer.

Richard Clark, of Warminſter, Wilts, dealer.

Robert Colls, of Worſtead, Norfolk, merchant.

William Reece, of Manchester, corn-factor.

John Garratt, of Great Doddington, in Northamptonshire, miller.

John Cooke, of Briſtol, hosier.

John Wand, of Henlow, in Bedfordshire, maltſter.

Samuel Slater, of Leeds, in Yorkshire, merchant.

William Windsor, of Aſton, in Warwickshire, builder.

Charles Randall, of Abbot's Langley, in Hertfordshire, coal-merchant.

James Knapp, of Weſterleigh, Glouceſterſhire, butcher.

JULY 6.

John Capper, (partner with John Warder) of Martin's-lane, Cannon-ſtreet, merchant, trading under the firm of John Warder, and company.

John Evans, of the Broadway, Weſtminſter, linen-draper.

John Jarvis, of Wild-court, Lincoln's-inn-fields, printer.

John Wadley, of Pollard-row, Bethnal-green, dealer in porter.

Charles Spencer Van Straubenzee, of Horbury, in Yorkshire, merchant.

William Clayton, and Peter Gaſkell, of Macclesfield, Cheſhire, cotton-ſpinners.

William Greenwood, of Mile-end-road, brewer.

Benjamin Bennett Pewtreſs, of the Grange-road, in Surry, dealer in jacks.

Thomas Owen, of Cheadleton, in Staffordshire, dealer.

William Brockington, of St. Thomas the Apoſtle, in Devonshire, ſerge-maker.

John Fry, and Thomas Thorn, of Briſtol, builders.

William Burrell, of Stockton, in Durham, linen-draper.

Abraham Ward Collard, of Manchester, linen-draper.

John Bird the younger, of Birmingham, refiner of metals.

John Senior, of Wadehill, in Saddleworth, Yorkshire, Dier.

George Moore, and Peter Hebbert, of Manchester, ſpirit-merchants.

Francis Marſhall, of Daventry, in Northamptonshire, innholder.

William Gomerſall, of Gildersom, in Yorkshire, clothier.

Samuel Palin, of Burſlem, in Staffordſhire, potter.

JULY 9.

Thomas Bailey, of Ludgate-ſtreet, glover.

William Smith, of Roſemary-lane, cheeſe-monger.

Alexander Hamilton, of Holborn, bookſeller.

Richard Weale, of Wokingham, in Berks, coach-maſter.

Daniel Dale, of Briſtol, mercer.

Joſeph Wigney, of Baſinghall-ſtreet, dealer.

Richard

Richard Silverſides, of Rothwell-haigh, in Yorkſhire, corn-miller.

Henry Liſcombe, of Chandos-ſtreet, Covent-garden, vintner.

Richard Pottinger, of Ardwick, in Lancaſhire, builder.

Samuel Garrard, of Watling-ſtreet, warehouſeman.

John Bailey, of Caſtle-ſtreet, Falcon-ſquare, merchant.

Edward Taylor, of Watling-ſtreet, cordwainer.

William Knowles, of Fleet-ſtreet, glover.

JUNE 13.

William Couſins, of Maidſtone, ſhop-keeper.

William Weare, of Eveſhot, in Dorſet-ſhire, tinman.

Samuel Wood, of Maidenhead-bridge, Bucks, vintner.

Henry Wilkins, of Liverpool, merchant.

James Edwards, of Briſtol, carpenter.

Edward Dawſon, of Northampton-ſtreet, Clerkenwell, wheelwright.

Thomas Varey, of Leeds, in York-ſhire, grocer.

William Chapman, of Croydon, butcher.

William Warner, of Greenwich, coal-merchant.

John Batchelor, of Chamomile-ſtreet, blackſmith.

Joſhua Hill, of Bagnio-court, Newgate-ſtreet, ſmith.

Peter Moſs, of Great Eaſtcheap, victualler.

William Flexney, of Holborn, book-ſeller.

William Gould, of Briſtol, carpenter.

John Ivy, of Cannon-ſtreet, carpenter.

JULY 16.

James Paddey, of Street-forge, in Cheſhire, iron-maſter.

James Douglas, of Worceſter, nurſery-man.

William Jenkins, of Long Sutton, in Lincolnſhire, grocer.

Lemuel Briggs, of Manchester, inn-keeper.

Daniel Dale, of Briſtol, mariner.

Thomas Ullah, of Greenwich, in Kent, mariner.

Mary Davis, of the Iſle of Wight, dealer.

Abraham Brandon, of Caſtle-ſtreet, Moorfields, muſtard-manufacturer.

JULY 20.

Anne Mortimer, and Henry Mortimer, of Marlborough, Wilts, linen-drapers.

Aſcanius Bono, of Hart-ſtreet, Crutched-friars, merchant.

Hugh Hamill, of Cateaton-ſtreet, linen-factor.

Abraham Ergas, of Mile-end, merchant.

Thomas Adſhead, of Stockport, in Cheſhire, ſhopkeeper.

George Shepheard, of Guildford, Surry, coal-merchant.

Robert Thornton, of Whalley, Lancaſhire, ſhalloon-maker.

Edward Herſey, of Slinfold, in Suſſex, miller.

Eliſabeth Gill, of Hartlebury, in Worceſterſhire, baker.

Thomas Watſon, and John Rutherford, of Princeſs-ſtreet, Soho, cabinet-makers.

John Simpſon, of Framſden, in Suffolk, farrier.

Joſhua Beaumont, of Aſhton-under-line, Lancaſhire, cotton-manufacturer.

Robert Sharman, of Reddenhall with Harleſton, in Norfolk, ſadler.

John Clarabut Gilbee, of Artillery-place, Moorfields, corn-factor.

Ralph Barber, of Manchester, fuſtian-manufacturer.

George Owen, of St. Helen Auckland, Durham, dealer.

Simon Reynolds, of Dockhead, Surry, brewer.

Thomas Cooper, of Henley-upon-Thames, Oxfordſhire, money-ſcrivener.

JULY 25.

John Shaw, of Lancaſter, and George Shaw, of Kingſton, Surry, merchants.

George Hodſon, of Dalſton, in Cumberland, Thomas Hodſon, of Knapton, Yorkſhire, and Thomas Martin, of Dalſton, cotton-manufacturers.

William Southey, of Goſwell-ſtreet-road, builder.

James Phillips, of Swanſea, in Glamorganſhire, grocer.

John Shaw, of Lancaſter, merchant.

James Robſon, of Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, tobacconiſt.

William Wait the younger, of Briſtol, merchant.

William Maſtin, of Briſtol, mariner.

Samuel Croſs, of Chelſea, wine-merchant.

Alice Pilſbury, of Chancery-lane, robe-maker, (trading under the firm of Child and Co.)

Silas Wells, of Cheltenham, in Glouceſterſhire, linen-draper.

John Rains, of Windſor, in Berks, currier.

Thomas Mills, of Woolſtanton, in Staffordſhire, potter.

NEW

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

Belsham's Memoirs of the Kings of Great Britain, of the House of Brunswick, 2 vol. 8vo. 12s.

Brown's Essay on the Natural Equality of Men, small 8vo. 4s. 6d.

Valli's Experiments on Animal Electricity, 8vo. 6s.

Fowler's Experiments on Animal Electricity, 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed.

Midnight Wanderers, a Farce, 1s.

Tour through Germany, 8vo. 7s.

Jurieu's Accomplishment of the Scripture Prophecies, abridged, 8vo. 3s. 6d. boards.

Edwards' History of the British Colonies in the West Indies, 2 vol. 4to. 2l. 8s.

Franklin's (Benjamin) Works, consisting of his Life, and Essays, 2 vol. small 8vo. 8s.

Franklin's Life and Miscellanious Works, 8vo. 6s.

Complete Distiller, 8vo. 3s. 6d. boards.

Trinder's Twenty Sermons, 8vo. 7s. 6d.

Walker's Twelve Discourses on the Liturgy, 8vo. 5s.

Le Roy's Military Antiquities of the Romans in Britain, folio, 5l. 5s.

Thelwall's Essay on Animal Vitality, 8vo. 2s. 6d.

Tench's Account of the Settlement at Port Jackson, 4to. 10s. 6d. boards.

Inglefield on the Determination of the Orbits of Comets, 4to. 15s. boards.

Weldon's Observations on puncturing the Bladder, 8vo. 3s. sewed.

Casino, a Mock-heroic Poem, 2s. 6d.

Emigrants, a Poem, by Charlotte Smith, 4to. 3s.

Lady Burrell's Poems, 2 vol. 8vo. 14s.

Nott on the Waters of Pisa and Yverdun, 2s. 6d.

Life and Adventures of Chevalier de Faublas, 4 vol. 12mo. 16s.

Milne's Indigenous Botany, vol. 1, 8vo. 6s. boards.

Holwell's Mythological Dictionary, 8vo. 7s.

Essay on the Happiness of the Life to come, 8vo. 3s. 6d. boards.

Essay on the Martial Character of Nations, 2s. 6d.

London Hermit, a Comedy, 1s. 6d.

Bristow's Narrative of his Captivity in India, 3s. boards.

Miller's Catholic Baptism examined, 8vo. 3s. boards.

Wekde's Address to the Society of the Friends of the People, 8vo. 8s.

Crombie's Essay on Philosophical Necessity, 8vo. 7s.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

July 13, 1793.

By the Standard Winchester Quarter of Eight Bushels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middlesex	46	8	31	2	30	7	26	1
Surry	47	11	30	0	31	0	26	1
Hertford	47	2	——		27	10	23	0
Bedford	45	7	29	6	30	0	24	4
Huntingdon	45	0	——		27	6	22	0
Northampton	47	2	32	0	31	6	21	4
Rutland	50	0	34	0	37	0	23	0
Leicester	51	9	——		36	0	25	7
Nottingham	55	0	37	11	33	0	24	0
Derby	58	1	——		——		28	8
Stafford	54	4	——		37	10	28	10
Salop	53	2	40	6	36	2	29	0
Hereford	53	2	42	8	32	0	29	7
Worcester	48	10	——		38	2	25	3
Warwick	51	3	——		——		27	11
Wilts	47	0	——		27	10	25	0
Berks	47	2	——		25	4	24	11
Oxford	48	10	——		27	6	24	10
Bucks	47	10	——		32	8	25	8
Brecon	62	5	44	10	32	7	24	0
Montgomery	57	6	——		28	8	24	8
Radnor	58	7	——		32	0	27	11

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Essex	46	4	30	0	29	2	24	2
Kent	46	6	——		28	11	23	7
Sussex	45	4	——		——		——	
Suffolk	45	11	29	3	29	11	22	10
Cambridge	43	1	24	0	——		18	3
Norfolk	43	6	25	9	24	11	20	1
Lincoln	48	5	35	6	——		21	8
York	46	6	36	0	——		23	0
Durham	54	2	36	6	30	11	27	9
Northumberland	45	9	35	1	31	1	22	6
Cumberland	52	8	43	10	38	0	23	7
Westmorland	58	8	48	0	37	0	25	4
Lancaster	53	6	——		29	0	21	3
Chester	51	2	——		37	3	25	11
Flint	51	0	——		38	4	22	4
Denbigh	55	2	——		43	1	21	4
Anglesea	——		——		30	0	15	0
Carnarvon	55	6	48	0	38	0	19	0
Merioneth	58	8	49	2	40	0	24	0
Cardigan	56	4	46	0	35	0	——	
Pembroke	42	11	——		31	4	14	0
Carmarthen	60	0	——		44	0	——	
Glamorgan	60	5	——		36	0	28	6
Gloucester	49	5	——		29	10	26	8
Somerset	54	5	——		29	0	22	4
Monmouth	54	11	——		——		——	
Devon	56	0	——		23	8	18	1
Cornwall	52	7	——		24	10	19	10
Dorset	48	6	——		30	0	24	0
Hants	47	6	——		30	10	25	2

Peck Loaf, 2s. 6d.

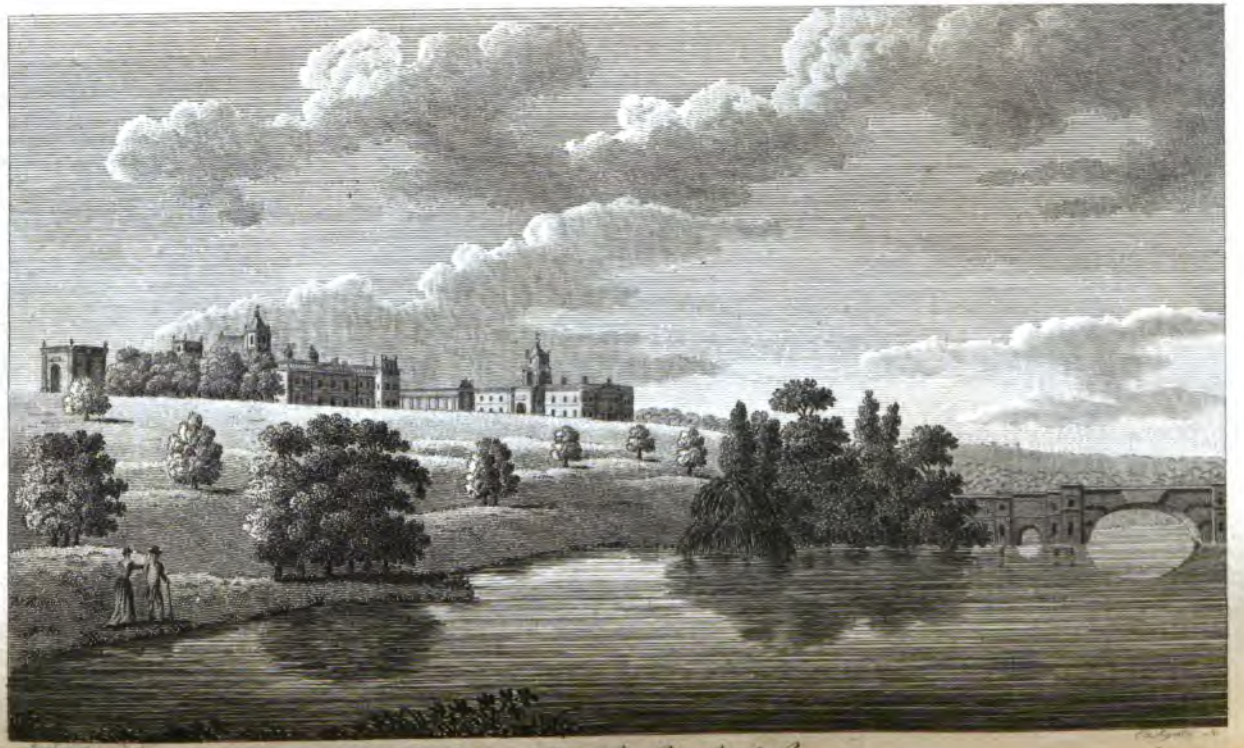
PRICES

PRICES of STOCKS, from JUNE 27, to JULY 27, 1793, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans.	Short Ans.	India Stock.	India Ans.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English Lot.	English Tic.
27	170 ½	77 ¼	shut.	91		22	10							9 dis.	13 17	6
28	171 ½	77 ⅜	77¼⅝	91 ⅜		22	10	212				77 ⅛		8 ½	13 17	6
29																
1	172	77 ¼	77⅜a78	91 ½	110 ¼		10	213		8s. dis.		77 ⅛		8 ¼	13 18	0
2	172 ¼	77 ⅜	78a77⅝	91		22 ⅛	10	214		5				8 ¼	13 18	6
3	173	77 ⅜	78¼a⅜	92		22	10	215		5				7 ¾	13 18	0
4	173 ⅜	78 ⅛	78⅜a79	93 ¼		22	10	216		par				7	14 0	6
5	175	78 ⅛	78⅜a78¾	94		22	10 ⅛	217		2s. pr.		78 ½		6 ½	14 2	6
6		78 ⅛	78⅜a½	93 ¼		22	10	215 ⅛						6 ⅜	14 3	0
8	175	78 ¼	78⅜a79⅛	93	110 ⅞	22	10 ⅛	215		1s. pr.				7	14 3	0
9	175	78 ¼	78⅜a½	93 ⅛		22 ⅛	10	215		2				7	14 2	6
10	176	78	78⅜a½	92		22 ⅛	10 ⅛	215		3				7 ⅛	14 1	6
11	177	78	78¼a½	92		22 ⅛	10 ⅛	215		3				8	14 1	6
12	176 ¼	78	78⅛a½	92 ⅛		22 ⅛	10 ⅛	215		4		78		7	14 0	6
13		78 ¼	78⅜a¼	92 ⅛		22 ⅛	10	215		4				7		
15	177	78 ¼	79a78¾	92		22 ⅛	10 ⅛	215		4				7 ⅛	14 1	0
16	176 ½	77 ⅞	78⅝a78	92		22	10 ⅛	214		4				7	14 0	6
17	176	77 ⅞	78¼a¾	92 ¼		22	10 ⅛	208		5				8	14 0	0
18	176 ⅝	78	78¼a77½	92		22	10	210		5				8	14 0	6
19	176 ¼	78 ⅛	77⅝a76⅞	92		22	10	210		5	84 ½			7 ⅛	14 1	0
20		77 ⅞	78¼a77⅛	92		22	10	210 ¼		5				8	14 1	0
22		78	78⅜a77	92		22	10 ⅛			5	82 ½			8 ⅛	14 1	6
23	177	78 ⅛	77⅝a¼	92		22	10 ⅛	210					77 ¼	8 ¼	14 1	6
24	176 ¼	77 ⅞	77⅜a77	92 ¼		22 ⅛	10 ⅛	210		5		78		8	14 0	6
25																
26	176 ¼	77 ¼	78⅜a77⅛	93		22 ¼	10 ⅛	210 ¼						5		
27	176	77 ⅜	77a⅛	93 ⅛	108 ⅝	22 ¼	10 ⅛	209 ½						7 ¼	14 0	6

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols, the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long and Short Annuties excepted, which are given within a ſixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.



Blenheim Castle Oxfordshire

A DESCRIPTION *of* BLENHEIM, *in* Oxfordſhire, *the Seat of the Duke of* MARLBOROUGH: *With a beautiful Perſpective View of the North Front of that magnificent Palace.*

THE palace of Blenheim, the moſt magnificent pile of architecture in this kingdom, is ſituated within half a mile of Woodſtock, nearly eight miles from Oxford, and was built at the public expence, in the reign of queen Anne, by whom it was given, with the park and manor of Woodſtock, to John duke of Marlborough, and his heirs, as a teſtimony of royal favour and national gratitude, for the many ſignal victories he had gained over the French and Bavarians; particularly on the 4th of Auguſt 1704, near the village of Blenheim, on the banks of the Danube, from which this noble palace receives its name.

The architect of this ſuperb ſtructure was ſir John Vanbrugh; who, though he has been perhaps juſtly blamed for a heavineſs in his general deſigns, muſt at leaſt ſtand acquitted in this inſtance, when it is conſidered, that ſtrength and durability were principal objects to be regarded, in a pile that was intended to remain a monument of Britiſh valour, and Britiſh generoſity, till the remoteſt periods of time.

The north front is 348 feet from wing to wing, highly ornamented; and the roof is concealed by a ſtone baluſtrade and ſtatues. This is the grand approach; to which we are conducted over a valley, by a magnificent bridge, the diameter of whoſe centre-arch is 190 feet, being conſtructed in the ſtyle of the Rialto at Venice.

Beyond this, in a direct line, and on a conſiderable eminence, ſtands a ſtately column, 130 feet in height, on the top of which is a ſtatue of John Churchill, duke of Marlborough; and, on its pedeſtal, his eminent achievements, and the acts of the Britiſh parliament in his favour, are fully inſcribed.

The ſouth front is leſs highly finiſhed. It commands a delightful view of the pleaſure-grounds and plantations, as well as of the diſtant village of Bladon.

Over its entrance, which is ſupported by Corinthian columns, ſtands the buſt of Louis XIV. of France, adorned with proper military emblems, taken from the gates of Tournay; and, near the eaſtern angle, the preſent duke has fitted up a commodious and elegant obſervatory, properly furniſhed with the beſt inſtruments and glaſſes that can be procured, under the direction of that eminent aſtronomer, Dr. Hornſby of Oxford.

The apartments of this palace are finiſhed with princely magnificence; and the tapeſtry, paintings, and ſtatues, are exquiſitely fine.

The common entrance is by the eaſt gate, which leads into a quadrangle, conſiſting of offices: thence we proceed into the area, and, through a ſuperb portico, on maſſy columns, enter the hall, which is ſupported by Corinthian pillars. The ceiling, which is the height of the building, is painted by ſir James Thornhill, and allegorically repreſents Victory crowning John duke of Marlborough, as ſhe points to a plan of the battle of Blenheim. This room contains a buſt of John duke of Marlborough, a Venus de Medicis and Faun in bronze, from the originals in the grand duke of Tuſcany's collection; ſeveral marble Termini, and two beautiful ſtatues of a Nymph and Bacchanal.

From the hall, we enter the bow-window room, the tapeſtry of which repreſents the battle of Blenheim, and other exploits of John duke of Marlborough. Among other paintings, this room is adorned with a capital original picture of the Virgin and Child, St. John, and St. Nicholas,

by Raphael; formerly belonging to the Cappela degli Anfidei, at Perugia, and brought over by lord Robert Spencer, brother of the preſent duke.

Adjoining to this, is the duke's dreſſing room; which, beſide a variety of other celebrated productions of the pencil, contains a very fine Holy Family, by Rubens; Our Saviour in the Virgin's Lap, crowning two Female Martyrs, by Titian; and a beautiful picture by ſir Joſhua Reynolds, repreſenting lady Charlotte Spencer, in the character of a Gypſey, telling her brother lord Henry his fortune: the archneſs of expreſſion thrown into theſe laſt delightful portraits, by the maſterly pencil of ſir Joſhua, is ſuperior to all deſcription.

We next enter the eaſt drawing-room, which is adorned with many ſuperb paintings; particularly, a very capital Bacchanalian piece, the Offerings of the Magi, and Rubens with his Wife and Child, all by that celebrated maſter; the laſt being a preſent from the city of Bruſſels to John duke of Marlborough: alſo a Man's Head, by Titian; and a Holy Family, eſteemed the work of Raphael, given to his grace by the city of Ghent.

The grand cabinet is filled with ſome of the moſt capital original paintings in any collection: among which are a Madonna ſtanding on a globe, ſurrounded by Angels, by Carlo Marratti; Chriſt bleſſing the little Children, by Vandyck; the Roman Charity; Lot's Departure out of Sodom, a preſent from the city of Antwerp; the Flight into Egypt; a Portrait of Paracelſus; and the Head of Rubens himſelf; all by that great maſter. Pope Gregory in his robes, and a Female Martyr with a palm branch, by Titian; a Magdalen, by Carlo Dolci; and a Holy Family, by Ludovico Caracci.

The blue drawing-room contains ſeveral paintings; the principal of which are, Catherine de Medicis, by Rubens; Time clipping Cupid's Wings, by Vandyck; an Aſtronomer and his Family, by Dobſon; two Family portraits; and a collection of beautiful miniatures, in one frame, with a curtain before them.

The tapeſtry in the adjoining winter drawing-room repreſents the Four Cardinal Virtues, with their proper emblems. Vandyck's pencil has produced a very fine portrait of Mary ducheſs of Richmond, lord Strafford and his Secretary, the ducheſs of Portſmouth and Eleanor Gwyn, miſtreſſes of Charles II, which are the only paintings in this room.

The dining-room is remarkable for a very capital painting of the preſent Duke, Ducheſs, and Children, by ſir Joſhua Reynolds. In this room are likewiſe paintings by Rubens, of Lot and his Daughters, and Venus and Adonis, both preſents from the emperor of Germany; a Bacchanalian piece, by Vandyck; and a landſcape, by Claude Lorrain.

The ſaloon is a noble and highly-finiſhed room, lined in the lower part with marble; ſeveral compartments above containing repreſentations of the different nations of the world in their characteriſtic dreſſes and expreſſions, by La Guerre. The ceiling, executed by the ſame artiſt, emblematically deſcribes John duke of Marlborough, in the midſt of his victories, arreſted by the hand of Peace, while Time reminds him of the rapidity of his own flight.

Several of the victories of John duke of Marlborough are delineated in the tapeſtry of the drawing-room, to the right of the ſaloon; and, over the chimney, is a buſt of the emperor Adrian. The principal paintings are Meleager and Atalanta, by Rubens; the Adoration of the Shepherds, by Lucca Giordano; and ſome pieces of Pouſſin.

The tapeſtry of the middle drawing room, to the right of the ſaloon, exhibits more battles of John duke of Marlborough; and contains a capital painting, on black marble, by Aleſſandro Veroneſe.

From this room we enter the ſtate bed-chamber; the chimney of which

is

is adorned with a buſt of Diana, and over it the Death of Seneca, by L. Giordano. Here are alſo a portrait of Edward VI, by Holbein; the Burning of Troy, by Old Frank; and two pieces of Still Life, by Malteſe.

The library is a noble room 183 feet long, thirty-three feet nine inches wide. It is impoſſible to conceive any thing more highly finiſhed, than the ſolid columns of marble, which ſupport a rich entablature, the Doric pilaſters of the ſame, the ſurrounding baſement of black marble, and the ſtuccoed compartments of the lofty vaulting ceiling.

This ſpacious room was originally intended as a gallery for paintings; but has ſince been furniſhed with a noble collection of books, comprifing near 14000 volumes.

At the upper end of the library ſtands a ſtatue of queen Anne, in her coronation robes, by Ryſbrack. At the lower end, is a buſt of Alexander the Great; being a fine piece of Grecian ſculpture, in good preſervation, dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, and ſupported by a modern pedeſtal.

On one ſide, above the book-caſes, are ſeveral buſts, and a number of whole-length family portraits; and, on the other, large bow-windows, whence there is a proſpect of the beautifully-covered deſcent to the canal, and of the riſing groves on the oppoſite hill.

From the library we proceed along an open gallery to the chapel in the weſtern wing of the palace; in which is a ſtately monument, by Ryſbrack, to the memory of John duke of Marlborough and his Ducheſs. They are repreſented with their two ſons, who died young, as ſupported by Fame and Hiſtory. Beneath, in a baſſo-relievo, is the taking of marſhal Tallard. The altar-piece repreſents Chriſt taking down from the Croſs, by Jordans of Antwerp.

The pleaſure-grounds and garden occupy about 200 acres, and are laid out with great taſte, principally under the inſpection of the preſent duke. The Flower Baſket is one of the moſt beautiful wilderneſſes of ſweets, any where to be ſeen; the interſecting walks, as well as the temples, and other artificial objects, are at once elegant and neat, and the whole is preſerved in a ſtate of the utmoſt perfection.

The canal, which covers the whole extent of a ſpacious valley, bordered by an artificial declivity, being taught to wind according to the deſigns of taſte, to fall in broken murmurs over the rough caſcade, and again to ſmooth its boſom, and move imperceptibly along, is certainly one of the fineſt pieces of water in this kingdom. It was the creation of the celebrated Lancelot Brown.

The park is one continued ſeries of charming proſpects, and agreeably-diverſified ſcenes. The utmoſt circumference of it is fourteen miles; round which are the moſt enchanting rides, ſhaded principally by evergreens; the roads are diſpoſed to the greateſt advantage, and new plantations are continually riſing, wherever they can contribute to the richneſs of the view. The walls of the park are, in general, quite concealed, and the whole ſurrounding country, variegated with hills and vales, ſpires, towers, and villas, appears as one wide-extended landſcape. In this park originally ſtood a magnificent royal palace, which was the favourite retreat of ſeveral kings of England, at various periods, till the reign of Charles I, when the ſucceeding interval of civil diſſenſion laid it almoſt wholly in ruins. It was not, however, entirely demoliſhed, till after the building of Blenheim; when every trace of the ancient edifice was removed, and two elm trees planted on its ſite.

Hiſtory informs us, that king Ethelred held a parliament at Woodſtock palace; and that Alfred the Great tranſlated, 'Boetius de Conſolatione Philoſophiæ,' at the ſame place.

King Henry I beautified the palace, and ſurrounded the park with a wall, which in many places ſtill remains. And who has not heard of the beautiful and unfortunate Roſamond, daughter of lord Clifford, and favourite of Henry II, with whom that prince long indulged himſelf in Woodſtock's bowers, where he is ſaid to have contrived a labyrinth, by which her romantic retreat (placed by tradition near the ſpring that ſtill bears her name in Blenheim park) might communicate with the palace, and prevent any ſurpriſe from the vindictive jealouſy of his queen? Roſamond was buried at Godſtow Nunnery, near Oxford; where a magnificent tomb was erected to her memory, ſurrounded with lamps, which were continually kept burning, till Hugh, biſhop of Lincoln, in whoſe dioceſe it was ſituated, ordered her remains to be removed, and depoſited in a leſs ſacred place: this injunction being complied with, the nuns interred her in their chapter-houſe; covering the grave with a flat ſtone, on which was only inſcribed, 'Tomba Rota Mundi.'

At this place, Henry II received the homage of Malcolm king of Scotland, and Rice prince of Wales, in 1164; and likewiſe conferred the honour of knighthood on Jeffery, ſurnamed Plantagenet, his ſecond ſon by the fair Roſamond.

Edmund, the ſecond ſon of Edward I, who was born at this palace, was hence called Edmund of Woodſtock; as well as Edward, eldeſt ſon of Edward III, commonly known by the name of the Black Prince. Chaucer, the father of Engliſh poetry, was born, lived, and died, at Woodſtock.

The princeſs Eliſabeth was confined at Woodſtock by her ſiſter queen Mary, and her life was once in the moſt imminent danger, from a fire which broke out under the room where ſhe ſlept.

An Intereſting DESCRIPTION *of* CONSTANTINOPLE; *with ſome curious Particulars of the Turkiſh Court.*

[From 'Watkins' Travels through Switzerland,' &c.]

THE capital of the Turks being, like its parent city Rome, ſituate upon ſeven hills, is divided in four parts;—Conſtantinople, called by the Turks Stamboul; Pera; Galata; and Scutari. The ſecond and third diviſions are ſeparated from the firſt by a branch of the ſea, called the Port, near half a mile acroſs *, and the laſt, on the Aſiatic coaſt, is divided from theſe by the Boſphorus, which is not leſs than two miles in breadth. I ſhould ſuppoſe the circumference of the whole, including the water, to be from ſeventeen to twenty miles, and the population, in time of peace, about 750,000 ſouls †. There is no city in Europe, perhaps in the world, that contains ſuch a variety of inhabitants; Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Franks, Jews, &c. The three firſt of theſe nations are ſcattered over the whole, though the Greeks and Armenians have diſtinct places in which the body of them reſides. The Franks dwell among the foreign miniſters in Pera, and the Jews in Galata.

Soon after my arrival, I took a Caique from Tophannah, a part of Pera, and directed the men to row me out from ſhore. Until this time, I thought no boatmen ſuperior in activity to the gondoliers of Venice; but they are mere infants, when compared with the Turkiſh watermen. Their wherries are light; and when

* Generally acknowledged the beſt in the world, as ſhips of the firſt rate can moor cloſe to the land, being ſheltered on all ſides from the weather.

† Of which three-fourths are Greeks and Armenians—the reſt Franks, Jews, and Turks; ſo that the laſt are but few in proportion to the other reſidents.

they

they urge them forward, they ſeem to glory in their ſtrength. I went out two miles for the purpoſe of ſeeing to advantage this city and its vicinity, poſſeſſed as they are of every external beauty that can aſtoniſh and delight the beholder. It is in form triangular. From the north-eaſtern point of the ſeraglio, to the ſeven towers (a diſtance of four miles and a half) its ſide, waſhed by the Propontis, bends into the nobleſt creſcent of continued buildings imaginable. The appearance of the Imperial palace from the ſea is far beyond any thing of the kind that exiſts. It is defended by two walls, with baſtions and battlements, and a platform of cannon at the angle on the Port, which are fired on ſeveral occaſions, particularly to announce the execution of ſome of its inhabitants, who have incurred the anger of the ſultan, or his favourites. The gardens riſe gradually from the walls. On their ſummit are the buildings of the ſeraglio, which, though irregular, preſent, with their leaden domes and gilded creſcents, a grand and magnificent aſpect; eſpecially, as the principal defects are covered by tall cypreſs, and other trees, with which the pleaſure-grounds are planted. Beyond this ſtructure appear the moſques, ſurrounded by their ſlender minarets, or towers. On the other ſide of the Port, which is crowded with ſhipping, and bordered with various buildings, ſuch as chioſchs, harams, bagnios, and the arſenal, riſe the ſteep hills of Pera and Galata, covered with houſes; among which the moſt conſpicuous are the palaces of the foreign miniſters. It may be truly ſaid, that nature has been laviſh of her bounty upon the Boſphorus; and the Turks, not inſenſible to its beauties, have filled its pleaſant ſhores with their villas. It terminates at Scutari. On turning about in my boat, I was much pleaſed with the Prince Iſlands, eight or nine miles diſtant from Conſtantinople; and ſtill more with the mountains of Aſia, particularly Olympus, near Burſa, covered with eternal ſnow. When I had gazed ſome time in raptures upon this incomparable proſpect, I returned and landed in Conſtantinople, where I viſited for the firſt time, the ſeraglio.

This celebrated palace, which ſtands upon a conſiderable part of the city, is divided from it by ſtrong and lofty walls. It conſiſts of three ſpacious courts and extenſive gardens. To enter the firſt, I walked under the great gate from which Conſtantinople is denominated the Porte. The populace have often the horrid ſpectacle of German and Ruſſian noſes, ears, and lips nailed againſt it. It is guarded by fifty capigi, or royal porters, who, like the janizaries, &c. carry no weapons at home, but canes. The firſt court is oblong, having upon the right the infirmary for the invalids of the ſeraglio, and on the left magazines of arms, the mint, &c. The roofs conſiſt chiefly of cupolas, covered with lead, and make a very noble appearance.

The ſecond court (the gate of which is alſo guarded by fifty capigi) is almoſt ſquare. In it is a corridor ſupported by marble columns, the ſpoils of Greece, under which is the ſtation of the janizaries, and other attendants on the Divan. Upon the right ſide are the kitchen and various offices of the ſeraglio, and on the left the ſultan's ſtables. No perſon but his highneſs can mount on horſeback in this court. The middle of it has a beautiful fountain, ſurrounded with cypreſs trees, &c. near which ſtate delinquents are beheaded. At the extremity of this court, on the left, is the hall of juſtice, called the Divan. The vizier and mufti are the principal members; but the moſt official ſeem to be the cadeliſquiers, or chief juſtices, who have the ſuperintendance of all the inferior magiſtrates, or cadhies. There is a door that opens into this chamber from the interior ſeraglio, carefully guarded by the capa-agaſi and his white eunuchs, and a lattice window in which the

ſultan often ſits unperceived, and hears the judgment of the court. When this proves unjuſt, their lives frequently atone for their corruption.

The third court or reſidence of the monarch, his women, eunuchs, &c. is but little known, as none dare approach the gate but thoſe who are called by the emperor. Even the vizier-azém or prime-miniſter, mighty as he is, trembles when he goes in on particular occaſions; for many who enter are never ſeen again, unleſs when their bodies be thrown out from a balcony over the ſea-beach. This gate is like that of the Divan, guarded by white eunuchs, than whom Argus or Cerberus were not more vigilant and ſevere, and the palace by mooriſh eunuchs commanded by their kiſlaar agà or general. It is impoſſible to conceive the human form more horrid than it appears in the laſt of theſe animals; their faces are mutilated, their bodies diſtorted, and yet the unholy monſters (for ſo they are) principally poſſeſs the confidence and favour of the ſultan, who beſtows on them the moſt gentle names, ſuch as Roſe, Jonquil, Narciſſus, &c. In conſequence of this, their authority is ſo great, that the proudeſt paſhas of the realm court their protection, and ſhudder at their frown. Beſide theſe, are mutes and dwarf-eunuchs to attend and divert the grand ſignor and his women. Thus the ſeraglio is, as it were, a little kingdom of itſelf, being ſeparate from the city, having its own particular cuſtoms, governed by its own laws, and known only to thoſe who dwell in it. I am informed that the preſent ſultan Abdul Hamid gets up, in obedience to the injunctions of his religion, before ſun-riſe to offer his prayers to the Supreme Being. He therefore breakfaſts early, and generally in thoſe mornings when cauſes are heard in the divan attends at his ſecret window. On other days he exerciſes or amuſes himſelf in the gardens. At dinner, as in the eaſtern manner, he ſits croſs-legged upon cuſhions; the Icoglans or pages place before him a table about a foot in height, on which is ſpread a covering of Morocco leather. The meats, on golden diſhes, are brought up to the door of his apartment by the major duomo and his officers, where they are received by the Icoglans and ſerved. His liquor is ſherbet; wine being forbidden by the Alcoran. On Sundays and Tueſdays, when he riſes from table, he goes to the ſaloon of audience, to converſe with his miniſters upon ſtate affairs; and every Friday at ten o'clock, it is almoſt an indiſpenſable duty upon him to go publicly to one of the moſques: on this occaſion he is attended by four or five hundred horſe, among which are his principal eunuchs and officers, and alſo by two or three thouſand janizaries, &c. As he paſſes, all people are permitted to preſent him their petitions; which, when he ſees lifted up on the end of a ſtick, he orders one of his ſlaves to receive. I have been twice preſent at this proceſſion, and think it the moſt magnificent and intereſting I ever beheld. The rich and various dreſſes, the beauty and furniture of the Arabian horſes, the comely appearance of the janizaries, and boſtangis or corps of royal gardeners (whoſe ſingularly-formed caps of ſcarlet cloth are particularly remarkable) in a word the ſplendour, the novelty, the ſilence, the ſolemnity of this ſpectacle, cannot, I think, but make a moſt powerful impreſſion upon every foreign ſpectator. Before the moſque the ſoldiers were drawn up in ranks to receive his highneſs, on whoſe arrival they gave a general groan (which I find is in Turkey an indication of profound reſpect) and immediately fell to the ground upon their faces. Abdul Hamid is in his 64th year. His countenance is long and ſolemn: his eyes large, full, and dark, but without expreſſion: his other features regular, though far from pleaſing: his beard is dyed black, and rather long: his dreſs is ſimilar to thoſe of his principal officers, except in the folds of the turban, and the ermine

ermine of the black fox; which none are permitted to wear, it being like the Imperial purple of the Romans, the diſtinctive badge of royalty. An attendant walked on one ſide of him with his hand upon the pummel of the ſaddle, and after him rode his two ſons, both children. I had an opportunity of obſerving the ſervile attention with which the courtiers addreſs the Kiſlaar-agà, and his fellow-ſlaves; and yet I am perſuaded they all hate them cordially. But to return to the ſeraglio. It is impoſſible to give any certain account of its female inhabitants; many books indeed pretend to it, but believe me their contents are mere romance. Information of this kind can only come from the eunuchs, or women whom the ſultan has given in marriage to his paſhas, and it is not probable that they would divulge the ſecrets of the Haram. We know that the moſt honourable females are the ſultanas, or thoſe who have borne children. They have their ſeparate eſtabliſhments, and are treated with great reſpect. The others live together, being governed by the Kadunes, or Duennas of the ſeraglio, and carefully guarded by the eunuchs, who puniſh with ſeverity their moſt trifling faults. The ſultan generally cohabits with a ſelect few: ſhould he deſire an addition to theſe, the ladies are aſſembled by the Kadancahia, or chief of the Duennas, in a large apartment, where he chooſes and declares his choice by preſenting the object of it with a pledge. The ſeraglio is ſupplied by the paſhas or governor of provinces, who ſend to it the moſt beautiful girls they can find. They are principally Circaſſians, becauſe they are naturally more delicate than the Georgians; but among them are women from almoſt every part of the empire and many foreigners. When the monarch dies, his ſultanas are removed to the old ſeraglio, which becomes their place of reſidence, and alſo of all the royal race, except of the reigning ſultan's infant children. The eldeſt male of the family always ſucceeds to the throne. The immediate ſucceſſor of Abdul Hamid therefore will not be his ſon, but his nephew Selim*, if not cut off to make room for his couſin. This prince is now eight and twenty years of age, and by report a handſome man. He has, ſince his father the late ſultan's death, been immured in the old ſeraglio, which he cannot leave but with his uncle. Women are allowed him, but only ſuch as are paſt child-bearing. Should either of them bring forth a male, the infant would, according to the jealous and inhuman policy of theſe barbarians, be immediately ſtrangled; as otherwiſe he might ſucceed to the throne before the children of the reigning prince.

The authority of the grand ſignor is unqueſtionably the moſt abſolute among the ſovereigns of Europe, as his ſubjects not only regard him with awe in a political light as the lord of their lives and properties, but with veneration in a religious one, as the ſucceſſor and repreſentative of their prophet. Nevertheleſs, though thus fortified with power and public opinion, he is ſubject to all the evils of a military government †, to degradation and death. This happens when the fanatic multitude are taught to think their religion or welfare in danger from the neglect or imbecility of the prince. Then it is, that loſt to thoſe ſentiments which inſpired them with reſpect and attachment, they murmur, aſſemble, dethrone, and deſtroy him, in expectation of enjoying under the government of his ſucceſſor, the ſecurity and advantages which were denied them in his. Yet the vizier-azem is in a manner reſponſible for the miſdeeds of his maſter; and often, though perhaps reluctant-

* Since theſe letters were written, Abdul Hamid has been poiſoned, and Selim has ſucceeded to the diadem.

† The janizaries are at Conſtantinople, what the Prætorian bands were in Rome; as mercenary, as turbulent, and as powerful, but leſs enlightened.

ly,

ly, given a ſacrifice to the blind fury of a mob, for his perſonal protection. The authority of this miniſter (who bears round his neck the great ſeal of the empire) knows no limit but the ſultan's will. He may put to death whom he pleaſes, except the Paſhas, the Spahis, the janizaries and other ſoldiers. The ſultan's ſign manual indeed is neceſſary for the execution of the firſt of theſe, and the conſent of their commanding officers for that of the military, but neither are ever an impediment to his inclination. He commands the whole empire except in ſuch things as relate to religion, and certain offices of juſtice. When the ſultan remains at home he marches with the forces of which he is generaliſſimo. He correſponds with foreign princes, their ambaſſadors, &c. and anſwers them as he pleaſes. His ſalary is ſmall, but the preſents and contributions of the Paſhas and Beys makes his income immenſe. The vizier Naſchangi who was ſtrangled on the 26th of October 1755, had amaſſed in the two months of his miniſtry 100,000l. Between officers, attendants, and ſervants, he has ſeldom leſs than 2000 perſons at his court. When he goes out on public days his ſtandard-bearer carries before him on a pole topped with gold three horſe tails. The three grand Paſhas of the empire, namely of Buda, of Babylon, and of Cairo, have indeed this privilege, but all the others are confined to one. Whenever the ſeals are taken from him, he is either ſtrangled or baniſhed. Indeed were it not for the inſtability of his charge, and the bowſtring, his ſituation would be more deſirable, as his authority is in effect more extenſive, than his ſovereign's. The mufti or high prieſt, is appointed by the ſultan. He is expected to be virtuous and learned in the Alcoran. His infallibility is much more generally acknowledged by the Muſſulmans than that of the pope by the Roman catholics; for his deciſions are on all queſtions final, and nothing of moment is undertaken, unleſs he be conſulted on it. Should his opinion, however, be adverſe to that of his maſter, he would immediately depoſe him, and ſupply his place with another whoſe ſentiments would be more accommodating to his wiſh.

The Capoudan-paſha is lord high admiral and actual commander of the fleets. The Reis-Effendi is the principal ſecretary of ſtate, and ever attendant upon the vizier to iſſue out letters-patent, edicts, commiſſions, &c. Beſide theſe are many other great officers, ſuch as the Faniſſaragasi or general of the janizaries, the Beglerbeys or governors of provinces upon whom the ſultan beſtows the three tails, the Teſterdar or grand treaſurer, Boſtangi Paſha, &c. I am inclined to believe that court intrigue and cabal were never carried on with ſuch effect as in the ſecret manſions of the ſeraglio. There, they conſtitute the principal amuſement; for by furniſhing the mind with employment, they operate as an effectual antidote againſt the tædium of an eternal confinement. The appointment and degradation of miniſters, the government of provinces, the command of fleets and armies, are often dependant upon the will of a capricious concubine, or a mutilated ſlave.

The houſes of Conſtantinople are built of wood, low and mean: the ſtreets are narrow, hollow, and dirty: in every object a traveller beholds the little progreſs the Turks have made in the liberal arts, and laments that its beauty ſhould be confined to its ſituation. The immoderate uſe of coffee has induced the government to monopolize that article. A few days after my arrival I was taken to ſee the place, in which it is prepared for uſe, and entered a large room where many were employed in clearing, baking, and pounding the berries. A cloud of duſt aroſe from the mortars, the fragrancy of which could not I think, be exceeded by the perfumed gales of Arabia Felix. People of the ſame trade in this city generally reſide in their reſpective Bazars or

markets. Theſe Bazàrs are covered ſtreets with ſhops on each ſide, before which the different wares are expoſed to ſale. The armourers, the drug-giſts, the furriers, and the ſadlers, particularly attract the attention, from the beauty, variety, and arrangement of their goods; but theſe places being continually crowded, and the plague riſe, I tremble as I admire. I have once been in the Bezeſtàn, where they ſell the clothes of thoſe who have died of this exterminating diſeaſe. It is not, as ſome think, caught from the *exhalation* of peſtiferous bodies, but by *contact*: therefore you may ſuppoſe I am particularly careful among the crowds of Conſtantinople.

They have no inns in Turkey, but houſes called Kans, or Caravanſerais, erected by charitable perſons for the accommodation of the pilgrim or traveller. Theſe are ſquare buildings not diſſimilar to our ſmaller quadrangles at Oxford, with galleries, into which the apartments open. I have been twice in the moſque of Santa Sophia and the other moſques. The firſt time the conſcientious ſcruples of the keeper to admit a *Jaur* yielded to *golden* rhetoric. The ſecond I accompanied the returning Bailo, Il Cavalier Guiliane, who obtained a firman, or order for admiſſion, from the grand ſignor. When by the direction of our conductor we had taken off our ſhoes, that our unhallowed feet ſhould not defile the floor, we were led by a narrow ſtaircaſe to the corridor, or great gallery, in which we beheld a profuſion of the fineſt marbles of Troy and Greece. From this place we look down upon the aiſle covered with mats delicately woven, on which were companies of Turks ſitting about their Imams, who expounded to them the law of their prophet. On the dome and in many other parts of the edifice, are ſelect portions of the Alcoran, and from it innumerable ſmall lamps depend. Adjoining to every moſque are built a certain number of minarets, from one to ſix. Theſe are lofty towers ſo very ſmall in circumference as to appear like ſolid columns. Near the top they are encircled with a rail or gallery, from which a prieſt with ſhrill voice calls the people to prayer (for they have no bells in Turkey) five times in every four and twenty hours. As their religion enjoins them to purify themſelves by ablution before they pray, there are for the purpoſe many noble fountains of clear water. I muſt confeſs I was much pleaſed with their *manner* of adoring the Almighty, becauſe they put on an appearance in it, the very reverſe of that which they generally aſſume, an appearance of extreme humility and mortification, turning toward the tomb of Mahomet at Mecca, and frequently bending with extended arms to the earth. The moſt magnificent of theſe ſtructures is that of ſultan Achmet, but I have enlarged ſo much upon the Santa Sophia, that I think you will diſpenſe with a deſcription of it. Near this part of Conſtantinople is a ſquare tower of great height which commands a view of the whole city: a certain number of janizary centinels are ſtationed on it every night to give the earlieſt intelligence of fires; for as all the houſes are of wooden materials, an accident of this kind, unleſs timely prevented, might reduce the capital to aſhes. Indeed you often read in the Engliſh papers of terrible conflagrations which happen here.

The walls of Conſtantinople, inſtead of being (as I expected) remarkable for their ſtrength, are in mouldering decay. A few days ago I rode along them to the extremity of the city at the ſeven towers, and ſaw the gate of Sans Romano near the place where the troops of Mahomet broke into the city when they carried it by aſſault. I wiſhed much to enter the ſeven towers, but could not, as Mr. Bulgakoff, the Ruſſian envoy is now confined there. However, though diſappointed in this attempt, I got into the ſlave market, but was obliged to wear a Turkiſh habit and a tremendous pair of whiſkers, which by

wires were fixed between my upper teeth and lip; as in a Frank's dreſs they would not ſuffer me to enter. By money I perſuaded a degenerate Turk to ſuppreſs his ſcruples and accompany me. There were ſome very pretty ſlaves ſitting in ſheds before the houſes, whom I viewed ſo much, that the owner aſked me ſmilingly (for he did not conſider me a *Jaur*) which I would purchaſe. I was fearful of detection, but laughed and walked away. As we returned I was ſhewn a room in which are eleven coffins of a late ſultan's children, who were probably ſtrangled. What innumerable murders has ambition inſtigated in the Imperial race of the Moſlems!

REMARKS *during a* SIX WEEKS RESIDENCE *in* Oxfordſhire *and* Glouceſterſhire, *in* 1792: *In a Series of Letters to a Friend.*

LETTER I.

Oxford, Auguſt 16, 1792.

DEAR SIR,

AT our parting, you requeſted to know the progreſs of my jaunt—you wiſhed that I would write a journal, and minute every little adventure while freſh in my memory, and you had the *modeſty* to deſire that I would ſubmit all this to you. What will you think, then, if I ſay that I find no great reluctance to do all this? For, ſhould my letters (which is not improbable in this publiſhing age) appear even before a higher tribunal, one uninfluenced by your kindneſs, and your partialities, I cannot loſe what I never had. I cannot loſe the acknowledged reputation of a writer. My name is no pledge for the gratification of curioſity; and the ſecret will repoſe where all the diſappointment will be felt, *with yourſelf*.

I left London on the 14th, and journeyed toward Oxford. Of the two roads, that by Henley and that by Uxbridge, I preferred the latter, not as what, in the opinion of travellers is the very beſt, but as likely to afford me more novelty. By me it was hitherto untrodden. If it be not the moſt pleaſant in all reſpects, you approach the country ſooner; you ſooner ſhake off the duſt of an overgrown metropolis; the ſuburbs here are narrowed, and within half an hour (after paſſing the turnpike) you inhale a pure and fragrant air, as yet untainted by the ſteams of a brick-manufactory. Another advantage—and with me, no ſmall one—is, that the view from the road is not intercepted by *new houſes*, a phraſe which, from the manner of building lately adopted, means 'a pile of bricks and mortar, exhibiting a violation of all the rules of proportion, and the laws of architecture.' But one comfort, I have always thought, we may derive amid the diſguſt which *new rows* create, from the reflection, that the architectural ſkill of the preſent age, is not likely to be a ſubject of ridicule in after times. Men will ſoon build better, when they experience that ſubſtantial work is for their intereſt—and the preſent edifices are not built for poſterity.

In paſſing the Queen's Lying-in hoſpital, indeed, I obſerved ſome new buildings, but of a more durable conſtruction than thoſe on the north and ſouth ſides of London. Among them, according to cuſtom, are certain 'Academies for young ladies and gentlemen.' In all *new rows*, as they are called, in the vicinity of the metropolis, there are three houſes which ſeldom fail to form the centre and the two extremes; a public-houſe, a chandler's ſhop, and a boarding ſchool. Education has become a trade, and, no doubt, many of thoſe who intend to earn a livelihood this way, begin with a very ſmall ſtock of requiſites; aware that ignorance and modeſt aſſurance will, in moſt caſes, ſupercede

ability. Yet do not think me ſevere. A 'dawn of hope' appears. You know that ſome traders who began with ſtalls and wheelbarrows, are now opulent ſhopkeepers; and who knows whether theſe ſchoolmaſters and miſtreſſes, whoſe beginnings were equally unpropitious, may not, from the habit of teaching others, acquire ſome knowledge themſelves?

At Kenſington Gravel-pits, (that field of honour to thoſe gentlemen whoſe reputation is guided by the motion of a trigger) there are ſome houſes built upon what appears to have been once a very general plan; the bricks a deep red; the windows very oblong and narrow; the rooms lofty, with ſomewhat of a dull, Dutch grandeur about them.—Nottingham boarding ſchool on the left, and the Prince's military academy on the right, are objects by no means unpleaſing; the ſituation of the former, and the conveniencies of the latter, will readily ſtrike the eye. They are, indeed, but trifles; yet, on firſt leaving the metropolis, ſmall matters will attract. How many a cockney enjoys the ſublimities of the Welch mountains, and the picturesque grandeur of the northern lakes *between London and Hampſtead!*

From Shepherd's-buſh, the country begins to ſhow itſelf more fully. Acton contains ſeveral well-built, and pleaſantly-ſituated houſes. The Wells near this place, once celebrated for their medicinal qualities, are now but little frequented. Their effect is ſimply purgative, and, unleſs briſkly ſo, I ſhould preſume that the proportion of liquid to be taken in, may counteract their good effects. I was told of an orchard here, called the *Devil's* orchard; but as I was not able to trace his property in it, I did not ſtop to examine the infernal fruit. This gentleman has the credit of performing many remarkable feats, which the *infidelity* of the preſent age haſtens to conſign to oblivion. In remote parts of the country, however, he is ſtill in ſome reputation as a powerful agent, and I doubt not of meeting with him in the courſe of my journey.

Hanwell, which I now reached, affords little ſubject for remark. It contains ſome elegant houſes, with pleaſure-grounds. Sion Hill, on the left, appears to advantage. Hayes is a more pleaſant village; many of the houſes may be called ſplendid; moſt, if not all the cottages, have been lately rebuilt. This is always a favourable ſymptom. Would it not be very deſireable to be able to prove that the increaſed bulk of London is owing to its *own* increaſing population, and the influx of foreigners, and not to the depopulation of the circumjacent villages? Viewing the ſubject in another light, perhaps it may be ſaid, that many of the villages near London are increaſed by the ſuperfluities of that metropolis. This is certainly the caſe to the ſouth and north. London is united to Camberwell, Kennington, and Brentford, and its union with Hampſtead is almoſt completed.

Hayes church is an object worth looking at; the chancel, in particular, is finely ornamented. In the churchyard, to ſave the expence of head ſtones, are many wooden boards with inſcriptions. This, I believe, is not very common. In Hillingdon churchyard, about two miles farther, is a remarkable yew tree; the pariſh books are brought in evidence that it is two hundred years old. The cuſtom of planting them in churchyards is certainly much older. Of Great Hillingdon, Uxbridge, at which I next arrived, is a hamlet.

Uxbridge is a neat and clean hamlet, or village, about a mile in length. The inns were mentioned by writers the beginning of this century, on account of their number and goodneſs, and they yet bear a favourable report, although their number is not very great. The church has many marks of antiquity. It was built in the time of the weak and unhappy Henry VI; but the repairs have been frequent. Uxbridge is watered by

the river Coln, which runs through part of Hertfordſhire and Middleſex, and empties itſelf into the Thames at Staines. Moſt villagers record ſome event of ancient times, honourable to their place of reſidence. A friend, with whom I breakfaſted, reminded me, that the commiſſioners of king Charles I. and thoſe of the parliament, held a long conference here in 1644; but he ſeemed diſconcerted when I aſked him, 'To what purpoſe?'

The country beyond Uxbridge abounds in rich incloſures, but devoid of proſpect. A man who likes to ride here, according to our friend W—'s pun, is a *diſintereſted* man, for he can have no *view* in it. All comes cloſe to the eye, without any expanſe of country. The vicinity of Uxbridge, by the bye, is deformed by ſeveral old and wretched huts, not like thoſe which were the prototypes of Grecian architecture, but like thoſe which are the reproach of modern landholders. It is to be regretted, that, when the mind is cheared, and the eye faſcinated by a diſplay of rich ſoil and cultivation, we are not allowed to forget the unrewarded labour of the peaſant, to whom it may be ſaid, with great truth and propriety, *ſic vos non vobis*, &c.

Aſcending a hill, we approach Bulſtrode, the delightful park and manſion of the duke of Portland; my deſcription would be both ſhort and ſuperfluous; what can be ſaid of a place ſo well known? Of the hiſtory of Bulſtrode, I only recollect, as a ſtriking contraſt to the character of its preſent owner, that it was once inhabited by judge Jefferies, a man who bequeathed a very appropriate *nickname* to every wicked judge, who ſhould come after him.

On this road, more than on any road from London, we have to find fault with the careleſſneſs of the commiſſioners, or of thoſe perſons whoſe duty it is to provide legible mileſtones. Theſe, and the way poſts, are equally uſeleſs, unleſs to an antiquarian, who might chooſe to amuſe himſelf in unfolding their myſteries. The expence of new ſtones and poſts would be trifling, and whoever travels, knows that their advantages are very conſiderable. Of all neglects, that which appears to ariſe from ſtupid obſtinacy is the moſt inſufferable. The magnitude of great obſtacles may be ſometimes invincible, and at all times may afford an apology, but why ſhould that eaſe and convenience be overlooked which can be promoted at a ſmall expence either of labour or money? Mileſtones are trifles, but

'Little things are great to little man.'

The view of the country, after paſſing Bulſtrode, is on both ſides more open and extended, and ſerves to exhibit the beauties of the park to the greateſt advantage. Beaconsfield has nothing remarkable in its appearance. It cannot but occur, however, that near it is the reſidence of a gentleman whoſe genius has ever commanded veneration, but whoſe character is perplexed with inconſiſtencies, which his enemies lay hold of, when they are wanting in argument, and which his friends attempt to juſtify without ſucceſs. I know not how to appreciate the merit of this extraordinary man. You and I have applauded and blamed him a hundred times, without ever coming to an agreement. As a private gentleman, he is entitled to univerſal reſpect. So firmly has he ſecured the attachment of his friends, that it may be ſaid of him, which can be ſaid of very few men; none of his friendſhips have ever been diſſolved but by himſelf. But in public life, he has too often been betrayed by the warmth of his feelings; and while yielding to the circumſtances of the times, he has forgot that his talents and eloquence were given to make thoſe times better. It frequently happens that when the imagination has been put in motion by genius, and is not checked by judgment, men of the greateſt powers have weakened every cauſe they meant to ſupport. Our mutual friend Dr.—— aſſerts that B—— began

began *without a ſyſtem*. This may be true; but I rather think he began with a *party*, that ſource of intellectual deſpotiſm.—Such were my remarks while the chaiſe drove by Gregories. If you don't like them, you may mend them at your leiſure.

I took a ſlight view of High Wycombe, while an early dinner was preparing. This place is healthfully ſituated between two riſing grounds covered with wood; and is, I believe, a place of very conſiderable antiquity. In comparative eſtimation, it ranks as the ſecond, if not the firſt town in Buckinghamſhire. The loweſt claſs of its inhabitants, that claſs which in all towns are denominated *poor*, and which in moſt are very wretched, are here uſefully employed in the manufacture of bone lace, which is executed with great perfection. Some of the dearer kinds are ſingularly beautiful, and the whole conſtitute an article of vaſt profit to the county. Beſide the maſter manufacturers, and the hands employed by them, a conſiderable number of the enterpriſing poor, earn a livelihood by travelling into the adjoining counties with thoſe laces, which they purchaſe at the trade prices, and are enabled to ſell to advantage. To ſuch ſmall beginnings, I was told, ſeveral reputable ſhopkeepers in Ayleſbury, &c. are proud to trace their preſent proſperity.

High Wycombe is populous and well built, and contains between three and four hundred houſes. No town in Buckinghamſhire contained four hundred houſes, which paid the duty on houſes and windows in 1781, when an eſtimate was laid before the houſe of commons; and the ſame may be ſaid of the counties of Cornwall, Huntingdon, Rutland, and Weſtmorland. The rivers Loddon and Wick afford ſupply of water for corn and paper mills; and in this place, as well as in its neighbourhood, there is a ſhow of buſineſs, and a *to-and-fro* motion which it is deſirable to ſee. Septennially, High Wycombe is ſtrongly agitated by the ſtorm of electioneering politics, and from ſome circumſtances mentioned to me, I am inclined to wiſh very ſincerely that a reform ſhould take place on the ſide of the people; but don't think me ſo niggard as to confine this wiſh to High Wycombe.

The poor, that are unable to work, are provided for in well-endowed alms houſes, one or two of which are modern. The corn-market is reckoned the greateſt in this part of the kingdom, and by inviting a numerous tribe of buyers and ſellers, gives a buſtling conſequence to the place.

To all this, Weſt Wycombe, about a mile farther, exhibits a diſagreeable contraſt. The houſes are mean, and tenanted by the loweſt claſs of lace-workers. The houſe and grounds of the late lord Le Deſpenſer lie on the left; the grounds are laid out with conſiderable taſte, but ſeem of late to have been neglected. Some part preſented the ſcriptural, but unpleaſant idea of 'the garden of the ſlothful man.'

The church of Weſt Wycombe was erected and endowed at the ſole expence of lord Le Deſpenſer. It is built of ſtone, on a very high eminence, where the old church ſtood. The pavement is Moſaic, and the roof ſtucco, ornamented with emblematical figures. There are no pews, but ſeats covered with green cloth, and haſſocks to kneel on. The furniture is rich, particularly the font, the baſon of which, with the cover to it, is of ſolid gold.

The ride from hence to Stoken church, Oxfordſhire, is agreeably diverſified by meadow and woodland. About a mile beyond Stoken church, a fine proſpect breaks upon the ſight; a grand and extenſive vale, richly covered with nature's choiceſt gifts; the objects preſent an agreeable variety, and, the foreground excepted, which is too regular, the whole forms a moſt picturesque landſcape. But this, by the bye, is the only thing of the kind on this road. On the right of the vale, appears a fine houſe belonging

longing to general Calliot.—The road, after this, becomes narrow, but the richneſs of the incloſures atones.

Tetſworth, through which I now paſſed, is a ſmall village; ſome of the cottages are new, a promiſing ſign of aboriginal induſtry. About two miles farther, on the common, I obſerved an object that does no great honour to the penal code of a refined, and, I hope, a common ſenſe age. This was a felon hanging in chains, and half devoured. Of what uſe this puniſhment can be, I am puzzled to know. If intended to add to the puniſhment of death, by inſpiring the ſufferer with the horrors of a protracted ignominy, the purpoſe will be anſwered only according to the proportion of honour or delicacy in his mind. If intended to terrify others as being ſomething worſe than death, it can ſeldom produce any effect, for it is inflicted arbitrarily, ſometimes on murderers, and ſometimes on highwaymen of a particular deſcription; and there is no certainty that it will be inflicted in any given caſe. If it be intended as a warning to others, where ſhall it be diſplayed? This road is ſolitary, and ſeldom frequented by thoſe who might profit by the ſight; and the object itſelf is too ſhocking, and cannot be viewed for a moment. Beſides, if we boaſt of our refinement, our lenity, and the gentleneſs of our puniſhments, let us not bring back ideas ſuitable to more barbarous ages. In one reſpect, however, I muſt allow that the object I encountered, is placed, perhaps accidentally, in a very eligible ſituation. It directly fronts a public-houſe of the lower order, and to the conſtant cuſtomers of ſuch houſes may uſefully ſuggeſt the connexion between a ſottiſh life, and an ignominious death. But this is a doctrine which, after all, ſhould be exhibited in a leſs terrific form. To cure men of crimes, I would not have every viſta terminated by a gibbet: nor for every puniſhment inflicted on evil doers would I impoſe a nuiſance on them that do well.

I now paſſed over the Thame by Whately or Wheatly bridge. The village is poor; the houſes moſtly thatched. A park and ſome pleaſure grounds on the right and left, afford a conſiderable variety of taſteful ſcenery. The ride thence round Shotover-hill is dreary, and we have no diſtant view of Oxford.—It breaks at once on the eye, but not favourably. From Shotover heath is the principal view, which includes the whole city, and for beauty ſtands unrivalled. It has, however, been found neceſſary to carry the road along the ſkirt of this eminence, which brought me to the moſt ancient and venerable ſeat of learning in the world. I would have taken up my abode at the Croſs Inn, but was prevented by the hoſpitality of our worthy friend of All Souls, who inſiſted on my reſiding with him during whatever ſtay I might chooſe to make. When you recollect the object of my viſit to Oxford, you cannot wonder that his invitation proved irreſiſtible. I am, dear ſir, yours, &c.

[Letter II. in our next.]

LOCAL CURIOSITIES *and* ANECDOTES.

NOTHING can be more pleaſing to a virtuous mind, than to obſerve any inſtances of affectionate veneration for the memory of departed genius, long after they themſelves have ceaſed to be ſenſible to human applauſe, although their writings ſtill continue to delight and to inſtruct. Thus, every heart feels and adopts that ſentiment of *literary piety*, if one may ſo expreſs it, which has induced the preſent poſſeſſor of Pope's villa at Twickenham *, to preſerve, with inviolable care, the two weeping willows, planted by our favourite bard himſelf. The ſame ſentiment ſeems to have been adopted on the continent; for ſlips of one of theſe trees

* The Right Honourable Welbore Ellis, M. P. for Petersfield.

are

are annually transmitted to different parts; and, in 1789, the empress of Russia had some of them planted in her own garden at St. Petersburgh.—Few readers are ignorant that the residence of Thomson was at Richmond in Surry, but few are acquainted with the particular spot in this delightful village, which the residence of the Poet of the Seasons has rendered truly classical. The house is still standing in Kew-foot-lane, and bears the name of Rosdale House. It was purchased, after the death of our poet, by George Ross, esq. who, out of veneration to his memory, forbore to pull it down, but enlarged and improved it, at the expence of 900l. It is now the property of the hon. Mrs. Boscawen, who has repaired the poet's favourite seat in the garden, and placed in it the table on which he wrote his verses. Over the entrance is inscribed:

'Here Thomson sung the Seasons and their Change.'

The inside is adorned with suitable quotations from authors who have paid due compliments to his talents; and in the centre appears the following inscription:—'Within this pleasing retirement, allured by the music of the nightingale, which warbled in soft unison to the melody of his soul, in unaffected cheerfulness, and genial though simple elegance, lived James Thomson. Sensibly alive to all the beauties of Nature, he painted their images as they rose in review, and poured the whole profusion of them into his inimitable Seasons. Warmed with intense devotion to the Sovereign of the Universe, its flame glowed through all his compositions; animated with unbounded benevolence, with the tenderest social sensibility, he never gave one moment's pain to any of his fellow-creatures, save only by his death, which happened, at this place, on the 22d of August 1748. Thomson was buried at the west end of the north aisle of Richmond church. There was nothing to point out the spot of his interment till a brass tablet, with the following inscription, was lately put up by the earl of Buchan: 'In the earth below this tablet are the remains of James Thomson, author of the beautiful poems entitled, The Seasons, The Castle of Indolence, &c. who died at Richmond on the 27th of August, and was buried there on the 29th O. S. 1748. The earl of Buchan, unwilling that so good a man and sweet a poet should be without a memorial, has denoted the place of his interment, for the satisfaction of his admirers, in the year of our Lord 1792.' Underneath, is this quotation from his 'Winter:'

Father of Light and Life, Thou Good Supreme!
O, teach me what is good! teach me Thyself!
Save me from folly, vanity, and vice,
From every low pursuit! and feed my soul
With knowledge, conscious peace, and virtue pure;
Sacred, substantial, never-fading bliss.

Those who are fond of displaying superior penetration and sagacity, may imagine that they have detected some plagiarism in this part of the above inscription, in Thomson's seat:—'he never gave one moment's pain to any of his fellow-creatures, save only by his death.' They may possibly say, that the thought was taken from the following couplet in Pope's epitaph on the hon. Simon Harcourt, at the church of Stanton Harcourt, in Oxfordshire:

Who never knew joy, but Friendship might divide,
Or *gave his father grief but when he died.*

But, then, the reader should be informed, that the thought in Pope's epitaph is not original. *He* might have taken it from an elegant Latin inscription of considerable length, on a mural monument of black marble, on the north side of the chancel in Putney church—'Vale, vale, Maria, nullam de te dolorem nisi ex acerbissimâ tuâ morte accepi.'

In

In the ſame chancel, on a black marble ſlab, are the following lines, which have ſo much *queerneſs* in them, that one would hardly ſuppoſe them to be over the grave of the ſame lady, to whoſe memory the elegant Latin verſes, mentioned above, were inſcribed. And yet this is the fact. This lady was Mary, the daughter of George Scott, eſq. and wife, firſt of Richard Luſher, and afterward of Thomas Knyvett, eſq. She died in 1623.

That you have lay'd my body here,
By that firſt ſide I lov'd ſo dear;
I thank you, huſband: that the poore
Are ſtill your care I thank you more.
Theſe laſt I charged you with alive,
Being dead, I reſt while you ſurvive.
But yet, I have another boone,
When fate ſhall come, as come full ſoone
It will—and will not be deny'd,
That you would cloſe my other ſide.
Y'ave thought it worthy to be read,
You once were ſecond to my bed.
Why may you not like title have
To this my ſecond bed, the grave?
This ſtone will cover us all three,
And under it we ſhall be free
From love or hate, or leaſt diſtruſt
Of jealouſy, to vex our duſt;
For here our bodies do but wait
For ſummons to their glorious ſtate.

Theſe lines explain a very ſingular inſcription under the north window of the ſame chancel:

'Vale Mariæ morituræ.

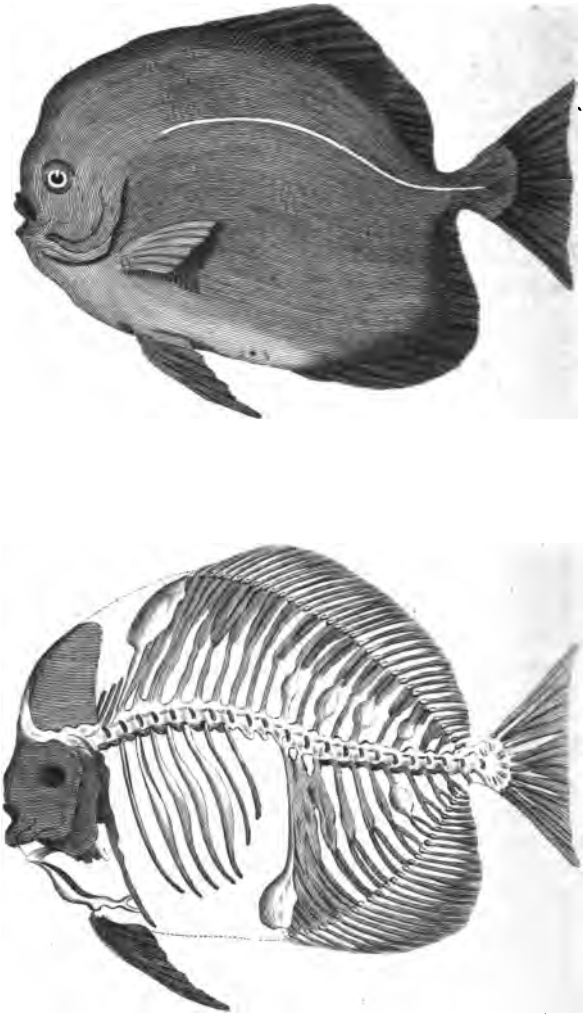
'See me buried by my former huſband, and remember the poor.'

But if the above epitaph be not very elegant, it impreſſes the mind of the reader, however, with ſome pleaſing ideas of conjugal felicity. It contains not the wicked ſatire in an epitaph, by Lorens, a forgotten French poet, on his wife, which makes us ſmile indeed, but leaves a diſſatisfaction behind:

Cy git ma femme—Oh! quelle eſt bien
Pour ſon repos et pour le mien.

The late kingdom of France, it has been obſerved, experienced often a reverſe of proſperity, at different periods, from the too great influence which the miſtreſſes of their monarchs had acquired in all affairs of ſtate. But Agnes Sorell, the miſtreſs of king Charles the ſeventh, is an exception to this obſervation. By her counſels and exhortations, ſhe roufed the ſupine monarch to thoſe vigorous exertions, by which, at laſt, he recovered from the Engliſh the crown of France. To her, therefore, that monarch was indebted, in a great meaſure, for all his glory. In the middle of the choir of the late collegiate church of Loches in Touraine, is the black marble tomb of this lady. The beautiful Agnes, in white marble, is an exquiſite figure; two angels hold the pillow on which her head repoſes; and we read this epitaph in French: 'Here lies the noble demoiſelle Agnes Sorell, in her life-time the lady of beauty, compaſſionate to all, bountifully diſtributing her wealth to the churches and to the poor, who died February 9, 1449.'—On the pretext that this object was not calculated to inſpire the eccleſiaſtics with the virtues of their holy ſtate (but, in reality, becauſe this monument ſomewhat incommoded them in the choir) they took advantage of a moment when Lewis the eleventh happened to be walking in the church, to ſolicit him to permit them to remove it. 'I have no objection,' ſaid that prince, 'to comply with your requeſt, provided you will firſt begin by giving up the eſtates for which you were indebted to her bounty.'—It is ſcarcely neceſſary to obſerve, that this anſwer was deciſive: the monument ſtill remains in the choir.

Such is the enterpriſing ſpirit of this country in every branch of commerce, that even the regions of the dead are explored for ſubjects of ſpeculation and adventure. An advertiſement reſpecting a new burying-ground at St. Pancras, in the Daily Advertiſer, of Monday, Aug. 5, thus concludes: *Orders* given to George Hamp, at the Burying Ground Houſe, from nine to twelve every day, *will be duly attended to.* Several *excellent* family vaults, of various ſizes, *to be diſpoſed of!*



The Ecan-bonna, a species of Chætodon.

DESCRIPTION *of a Species of Chætodon, called, by the* Malays, ECAN BONNA. *By Mr.* William Bell, *Surgeon in the Service of the* East India Company, *at* Bencoolen. *Communicated by Sir* Joſeph Banks, *Bart. P. R. S. Illuſtrated by a Repreſentation of the* Fiſh, *and alſo the* Skeleton *of the Same.*

[Read before the Royal Society, January 17, 1793.]

THE fiſh called Ecan Bonna, by the Malays, is broad, flat, and of a lead colour; the belly is flat, white, and in places tinged with green. The eyes are a bright yellow. The body is covered with ſmall ſemicircular ſcales.

Its length is generally about 18 inches; its breadth 13, and, at the thickeſt part, it is nearly three inches thick.

It is frequently caught at Bencoolen, and ſeveral other parts on the weſt coaſts of Sumatra, and is ſaid to grow to a much larger ſize. Its fleſh is white, firm, and well flavoured, and it is conſidered as a good fiſh for the table.

It has ſix fins: two pectoral, two ventral, one dorſal, and one anal fin. The tail is broad, and of a triangular form.

The pectoral fins are ſmall, blunted at their ends, and placed a little behind the gills.

The ventral fins are placed on the ſternum, and are longer, and more pointed.

The dorſal fin ariſes at the beginning of the ſpinous proceſſes of the back, and is continued down nearly to the tail.

The anal fin ariſes a little below the anus, and is alſo continued on almoſt to the tail. It is ſtrong and broad, like the dorſal, and projects a little farther backward than it.

The mouth is ſmall, and each jaw contains five rows of ſmall teeth, about the thickneſs of hog's briſtles, and of equal thickneſs throughout their length. The grinding, or cutting ſurfaces of the front, ſecond, and third rows, in both jaws, are divided into three points. The two inner rows are pointed, and bent a little backward.

The ſtomach was empty, ſo that I had not an opportunity of aſcertaining its food. The inteſtinal canal was long, like that of fiſh which feed on vegetables; and the œſophagus was thick ſet with pyramidal bodies, like the œſophagus of the turtle.

The ſkeleton is very ſingular, many of the bones having tumours, which, in the firſt fiſh I ſaw, I ſuppoſed to be exoſtoſes ariſing from diſeaſe; but on diſſecting a ſecond, found the correſponding bones had exactly the ſame tumours, and the fiſhermen informed me they were always found in this fiſh; I therefore conclude them to be natural to it.

In Mr. Hunter's collection are two or three of theſe bones, but I never knew what fiſh they belonged to; they were ſuppoſed to be from the back of ſome of the large rays.

What advantage can ariſe from theſe large tumours is difficult to ſay. Thoſe on the ſpines of the vertebræ ſeem to anſwer no evident purpoſe, nor thoſe at the origin of the dorſal, and anal fins. The particular form of the ſternum, to which the ventral fins are joined, ſeems to be intended to give greater ſurface for the attachment of the muſcles, and to increaſe their action.

Theſe tumours are ſpongy, and ſo ſoft as to be eaſily cut with a knife; they were filled with oil.

The air-bladder is very large, for the ſize of the fiſh, probably to counteract the weight of the bony matter in the ſkeleton.

It is generally caught near the ſhore, where there are ſea-weeds, and the Malays ſay it is a dull ſwimmer.

HISTORY *of the* MANNERS, VIRTUES, VICES, *remarkable* CUSTOMS, *&c. of the People of* Great Britain; *during the Reigns of* Henry VII *and* VIII: *Continued from Page* 40.

AMONG nations whoſe government is monarchical, the ſupreme magiſtrate is exalted to a power, and invoked by titles ſcarcely compatible with human nature; while the people, from whom his authority originates, and on whoſe breath his exiſtence depends, are in hiſtory regarded only as ſubſervient to him. Their annals are adjuſted and marked by his reign, filled with his public tranſactions or ſecret policy; and as every achievement is aſcribed to his auſpices, it is his life rather than their hiſtory that is recorded for the benefit of ſucceeding generations. From the public tranſactions, or the dark and diſhoneſt intrigues of princes, the tranſition to the private character of the people is grateful; yet there our attention is ſtill irreſiſtibly attracted to the ſovereign, whoſe example either extends to ſociety, or whoſe court is an index to the manners, cuſtoms, and taſte of the age.

It is obſervable that the ſpirit of a nation is ſubject to frequent and ſudden viciſſitudes; that it paſſes from the extremes of religious frenzy, or civil diſcord, to a ſtate of inactive and cold indifference. The Engliſh, after a long interruption, obtained by the union of the rival roſes the bleſſings of a permanent government and domeſtic concord, and were unwilling to forfeit theſe by the raſh renewal of their former troubles. The power of the nobles was broken, and their numbers diminiſhed; the policy of the crown had ſuppreſſed their retainers; war, or the progreſs of ſociety, had either deſtroyed or enfranchiſed their bondſmen; nor were armies ready to ſtart, as formerly, at the ſound of their trumpets. *Their* depreſſion, and the diſuſage of ſlavery, produced a ſalutary alteration on the ranks of ſociety, removing the materials as well as the cauſes of future commotions; but on the removal of theſe, an important change is perceptible in the ſpirit both of the government and people. The regal power, counteracted hitherto by that of the nobles, ſubſiſted, after the decline of their influence, without oppoſition and without reſtraint. Government was ſanguinary, the people were paſſive, and ſubmiſſive to rapacious vindictive tyrants, at whoſe pleaſure the laws were either ſuperſeded or perverted. The ſcaffold ſtreamed with the blood of the nobles, and the flames of perſecution conſumed the religious; but the people ſuffered with patience, reſigned the conſtitution to their monarch, and received as their religion whatever his caprice or his paſſions might dictate. Other nations, amid the remains of chivalry, (the force of which was not yet exhauſted) diſcovered in their government much of their preſent moderation and lenity; and the contemporary reigns of Charles and of Francis exhibit deſpotic authority mitigated by refinement, mild in its exerciſe, and unſtained by ſanguinary exertions of power. In England, a tyrannical government argues a more barbarous ſtate of ſociety. The people were inured to bloodſhed by the civil wars; and while their own ſecurity remained unaffected, beheld the fate of their ſuperiors with ſupine indifference, or perhaps with a ſecret malignant pleaſure. Government, it is true, was always vigilant to ſuppreſs their murmurs; and Henry VIII condeſcended repeatedly to court their affections; religious conteſts ſerved to balance their hopes and their fears; and the religious parties into which they were divided applauded alternately every tyrannical action of Henry's reign. Perhaps they eſteem-

ed

ed his character; but theirs is marked by a tame ſervility, unexampled hitherto in the annals of England.

Their manners, though comparatively rude, attained in the preſent period to conſiderable refinement; of which, however, it is difficult to aſcertain the preciſe degree, impoſſible to diſtinguiſh the minute gradations. Foreigners who viſited the country have tranſmitted a favourable report of the inhabitants; and Polydore Virgil, with a viſible partiality, pronounces that theirs reſembled the Italian manners; but Eraſmus informs us, that their manners participated of thoſe nations from whom they originated, exhibiting a mixture neither ſo refined as the French, nor ſo rude as the German. The reſort of foreigners was conſiderable, and apparently acceptable to all ranks, the plebeians excepted, who, like their own maſtiffs, are ſtill noted for their antipathy to ſtrangers. The nobility and gentlemen of opulence began to travel for improvement through Europe, to ſtudy the languages, and acquire the refinement of different courts *; and this intercourſe with foreigners at home and abroad contributed, without ſupplanting, to correct the rudeneſs of the national manners. If the character, however, of a court be aſſumed from the ſovereign, theſe manners in the court of Henry VII, muſt have been rude indeed. On arriving at a village where Catherine of Arragon, after landing in England, was lodged for the night, Henry was told that the princeſs had already retired to reſt; but he announced his intention of viſiting her bed-ſide, obliged her to riſe and dreſs to receive him, and eſpouſed her that evening to his ſon prince Arthur. Henry VIII affected more gallantry, and his court was diſtinguiſhed by ſuperior politeneſs; but that romantic gallantry, which was congenial to Francis and to James IV, was adopted through emulation, and ſat with viſible conſtraint upon Charles, who diſregarded, and upon Henry, who forgot his youthful profeſſions of reſpect for the fair. His paſſions were impetuous, his gallantry was indelicate, yet his character brave, frank, and generous like his grandfather Edward, though, like his father Henry, rapacious and jealous, attracted the nobility, and encouraged a magnificence unknown till then in the Engliſh court. The nobility, who had formerly ſhunned the court, unleſs at ſeaſons when their appearance was neceſſary †, began to frequent it in Henry's reign; they exchanged their ſolitary dignity for ſocial intercourſe, exhauſted their revenues in oſtentatious magnificence, and while their exiſtence literally depended on the ſmiles or frowns of a capricious maſter, acquired the frivolous, the pleaſing refinement of courtly manners.

But the poliſh of courts is imparted only to a portion of ſociety, and the refinement of the people may be eſtimated perhaps by their means of improvement, their early education, and domeſtic manners. Their education in the preſent period was extremely defective. Schools were rare; and before the reformation, young men were educated in monaſteries, women in nunneries; where the latter were inſtructed in writing, drawing, confectionary, needle-work, and what were regarded then as female accompliſhments, in phyſic and ſurgery. The acquiſitions of the former were confined to writing, and a tincture probably of barbarous Latin; but ignorance was ſtill ſo common, that Fitzherbert recommends to gentlemen unable to commit notes to writing, the practice of notching a ſtick to aſſiſt their memory. When removed from theſe ſeminaries to the houſes of their parents, both ſexes

* Surry, Wyat, and others, had travelled; and it is ſaid that the firſt of the Bedford family diſtinguiſhed at court was a Mr. Ruſſel, who had acquired by travelling the languages of the continent, and was employed by ſir John Trenchard his kinſman to attend on Philip of Auſtria as an interpreter during his journey to court.

† During parliament, or once a year, to perform their homage.

were treated in a manner that precluded improvement. Perhaps the beſt criterion of civilized ſociety is the free intercourſe and reciprocal confidence between parents and their offſpring; a ſituation in which an indulgent equality ſuperſedes authority, and conciliates mutual eſteem and affection. But domeſtic manners were ſevere and formal; a haughty reſerve was affected by the old, and an abject deference exacted from the young. Sons, when arrived at manhood, are repreſented as ſtanding, uncovered and ſilent, in their father's preſence; and daughters, though women, were placed like ſtatues at the cupboard; nor permitted to ſit, or repoſe themſelves otherwiſe than by kneeling on a cuſhion, till their mother departed. Such auſtere manners were prevalent even in France *, and peculiar rather to the age than the nation; but the Engliſh, I am afraid, diſcover a latent unfeeling ferocity in the relentleſs rigour of their domeſtic tribunals. Omiſſions were puniſhed by ſtripes and blows; and chaſtiſement was carried to ſuch exceſs, that the daughters trembled at the ſight of their mother, and the ſons avoided and hated their father. Theſe circumſtances indicate that the manners of the people were ceremonious and ſtately, their refinement artificial, adopted only in their external intercourſe, not habitual, nor retained to purify domeſtic life.

Chivalry, though its influence diminiſhed daily, ſtill ſubſiſted as a ſplendid ſpectacle, ſupported by the mutual emulation of princes, their enthuſiaſtic gallantry, or their predilection for arms and exploits of valour. Francis and James IV, imbibed the genuine ſpirit of chivalry; and in an age when craft began to predominate in politics, their conduct was often prepoſterouſly adjuſted by the precipitate dictates of romantic honour. The introduction of refinement and taſte in Scotland is aſcribed to the eſpouſals of James and Margaret; but although the people were fierce and untractable, the court was poliſhed, and the king, whoſe deportment during the celebration of his nuptials was remarked and recorded, diſplayed the courteſy of an accompliſhed knight, and a delicacy far ſuperior to the Engliſh monarchs. Henry VIII delighted in chivalry; its ſpirit neither perverted his judgment nor improved his heart; but its tournaments gratified his taſte for magnificence and his paſſion for arms. On theſe amuſements, in which he engaged as a conſtant combatant, his father's treaſures were profuſely expended. His weapons ſometimes were unuſual, at leaſt at tourneys, the battle-axe and two-handed ſword; but theſe, I ſuppoſe, were *rebated* or blunted, as the ſpears were with which the combatants were furniſhed. Yet on one occaſion his life was endangered by his favourite Brandon, who ſhivered a ſpear on his helmet, without perceiving that his vizor was open, and his face expoſed to a mortal blow. At his interview with Francis in *the field of the cloth of gold*, his ſtrength and dexterity were both conſpicuous in a tournament perhaps the moſt ſplendid of the age. The two kings, who, with fourteen companions, had undertaken to encounter all who challenged, entered the liſts with their aſſiſtants, ſumptuouſly arrayed in the richeſt tiſſues; and in the preſence of their queens awaited the appearance of thoſe knights whom the fame of their tournament was ſuppoſed to have attracted. Their opponents were ready; twelve gentlemen richly habited. Francis began; and after performing ſucceſſive courſes, and breaking ſeveral ſpears with applauſe, was ſucceeded by Henry, who ſhivered his ſpear at the firſt encounter; at the ſecond, demoliſhed his

* 'At Roſny are ſtill ſhewn two ſtone benches, where the illuſtrious Sully enjoyed domeſtic comfort, himſelf ſeated, and the reſt of his family ſtanding uncovered near a bench facing him.'

anta-

antagoniſt's helmet. Their juſtings were continued for five days with equal ſplendour and ſimilar ſucceſs; and the minute deſcriptions of the attire of the knights and the trappings of the horſes, of their quaint devices and feats in arms, aſſure us that theſe ſpectacles were highly eſtimated. The mock encounters with princes appear at preſent unimportant and trivial, as thoſe of the mimic monarchs on the ſtage; yet if a ſervile or brutal exhibition delighted by its maſſacre the refined and rational nations of antiquity, how ſuperior, as a ſpectacle, is the image of war, where kings and heroes are the only combatants?

Theſe, inſpected at a diſtance, were magnificent times, yet diverſified withal, when examined cloſely, with ſimplicity of manners, and plainneſs or penury in the chief comforts of modern life. Margaret, on her marriage with James IV, made her public entry into Edinburgh, riding on a pillion behind the king. The apartments of Hampton-court had been furniſhed, on a particular occaſion, each with a large candleſtick, a baſon, goblet, and ewer, of ſilver; yet the furniture of Henry's chamber, independent of the bed and cupboard, conſiſted only of a joint-ſtool, a pair of andirons, and a ſmall mirror. The halls and chambers of the wealthy were ſurrounded with hangings, ſometimes with arras, and repleniſhed with a cupboard, long tables, or rather looſe boards placed upon treſtles, forms, a chair, and a few joint-ſtools. Their beds were apparently comfortable, often elegant; but thoſe of inferior condition ſlept on a mat, or a ſtraw pallet, under a rug, with a log for a pillow. Glaſs windows were confined to churches and manſions, and carpets were only employed to garniſh the cupboard. The floors, compoſed of clay, and covered either with ſand and ruſhes, were foul and loathſome, collecting and retaining for twenty years the offals of the table, and the putrid excretions of dogs and men; and Eraſmus, from whom this deſcription is taken, attributes juſtly to the uncleanlineſs of the Engliſh, the frequent and deſtructive viſitations of the plague.

The morals are leſs flexible than the manners of a people; and thoſe virtues that in former ages diſtinguiſhed the Britiſh, ſubſiſted in the preſent with little alteration. The Engliſh were generous and brave as formerly, fond of war and intrepid in danger. Their hoſpitality continued, not indeed in its former profuſion, but corrected rather than abated by the changes produced on the modes of life. Their active virtues have already been enumerated in our former volumes, in a manner that renders repetition unneceſſary. Their predominant vices afford a more copious and ungrateful ſubject; for the reformation detected the profligate lives of the monks and clergy, and the eloquence of the pulpit, acquiring from the reformers a new direction and additional vigour, touched with freedom or aſperity the vices of the people.

Ignorance, a venial imperfection in the laity, becomes criminal in thoſe who profeſs to teach or to diſcover the way to ſalvation; but perhaps the ignorance formerly conſpicuous both in the monaſtics and the ſecular clergy, diminiſhed after the dawn of reformation and letters. Their pravity did not diminiſh however, but reſiſted, at leaſt in England, the cenſures of their enemies, and the ſenſe of their own impendent danger. The viſitations that preceded the ſuppreſſion of the monaſteries diſcovered, if credit be due to the inſpectors, crimes the moſt degrading to human nature. Hypocritical ſanctity and holy frauds are congenial to every monaſtic inſtitution; and the counterfeit relics impoſed on the vulgar, or the artifices practiſed to ſupport their credit, are to be regarded as the eſtabliſhed trade and profeſſion of religious orders. Intemperance is alſo to be expected wherever aſcetics have obtained a relaxation from rigid diſcipline; nor is their guilt inexpiable, if, after indulging

dulging in evening collations, they aſſembled irregularly, and drank to matins. But the reports are replete with other crimes of a deeper complexion; the lewdneſs of the monks, the incontinence of the nuns, the abortions forcibly procured by the latter, and the monſtrous luſts which the former indulged. The particulars would ſtain and diſhonour our page; yet an hiſtorian, anxious for the dignity of human nature, might wiſh to believe, that the reports of the viſitors were inflamed by zeal, and perverted by an intereſted and malignant policy. It is difficult to conceive that they would venture, unſupported by evidence, to accuſe a community of crimes repugnant to human nature; and their veracity ſeems to be vindicated by their extreme ſolicitude to preſerve ſome convents whoſe conduct was exemplary. But theſe crimes were apparently notorious; nor is their exiſtence doubtful, or the licentious lives of the regulars diſputable, when their debaucheries had already attracted the papal indignation, and their crimes incurred the cenſures and menaces of Morton the primate. If, at the commencement of this period, the monks of St. Alban's had begun, in different convents to diſplace the nuns and ſubſtitute proſtitutes, it is not probable that their morals were afterward improved or their diſcipline re-eſtabliſhed.

The monks however, had a merit in their liberal hoſpitality and charity. Their tables were open to ſtrangers, and, as the cheer was excellent, much frequented by the neighbouring gentlemen. At St. Alban's, and probably at other abbies, every traveller found an hoſpitable reception for three days; and was then permitted, if his conduct was ſatisfactory, or his buſineſs important, to protract his ſtay. The fragments of their luxury furniſhed an extenſive charity; and their indulgence to their tenants, whoſe rents were always moderate, endeared them to the peaſants. In Scotland, where the regulars were not, I believe, ſo diſſolute, ſimilar hoſpitality was ſupported in monaſteries; and in the abbey of Aberbrothwick, about nine thouſand buſhels of malt ſeem to have been annually expended in ale. But theſe communities were prejudicial, even by their charities, to the increaſe of induſtry; and their diſſolution aſſures us that the moſt venerable inſtitutions, however ſanctioned by time or ſupported by prejudice, may be ſuppreſſed when uſeleſs, without detriment or danger to ſociety. It is probable that forty thouſand were diſcharged from different religious houſes; and it is certain that a number ſuperior to that of the clergy at preſent was abſorbed with facility into the maſs of the people.

From the morals of the clergy, the tranſition to thoſe of the laity is natural; and Henry, after diſlodging vice from the cloiſters, proceeded, in the ſame ſtrain of reformation, to cleanſe the ſtews. Theſe were a range of buildings in Southwark, on the banks of the Thames, privileged by patent as brothels, regulated by ſtatute, and tolerated as a neceſſary drain for corruption, from the reign of Henry II to the laſt year of Henry VIII. The wretched proſtitutes were then expelled, the ſtews were *put down* by ſound of trumpet, and their ſuppreſſion was perhaps attended with more ſolemnity than that of the convents. Their ſuppreſſion failed however to extirpate lewdneſs; and Latimer, whoſe ſermons are replete with a barbarous eloquence, inveighs bitterly at its ſubſequent prevalence: 'You have put down the ſtews,' ſays this rude declaimer, 'but what is the matter amended? What availeth that? Ye have but changed the place, and not taken the whoredom away. I advertiſe you, in God's name, to look to it. I hear ſay there is now more whoredom in London than ever there was in the Bank. There is more open whoredom, more *ſtewed* whoredom.' The vices obnoxious to clerical cenſures are not always pernicious

to ſociety, nor is their magnitude certain, when tranſmitted through the medium of intemperate zeal. But Latimer's propoſal, in a court ſermon, for reſtraining adultery by a capital puniſhment, atteſts its prevalence; nor is any inferior infliction too ſevere for a crime that embitters life, and corrodes the deareſt connexions of nature; a crime, in its ultimate conſequences, ſubverſive either of ſocial intercourſe, or productive of an utter relaxation of morals.

"The vices and the follies peculiar to the age are neceſſarily the chief topics of pulpit eloquence; and, if credit were due to this ſevere reformer, the ſtateſmen and judges were corrupted by bribery, the people profligate, deſtitute of charity, immerſed in vice, and devoted to perdition. Wherever government is arbitrary, the adminiſtration of juſtice is perverted and partial; and judges ſubſervient to regal influence are certainly not inacceſſible to ſecret corruption. The unmeaning oaths to which the Engliſh have in every age been addicted are peculiarly offenſive to pious ears, and in ſome minds generate a perſuaſion, that a people habituated to profane ſwearing are diſaffected to the Deity whoſe name they diſhonour, impervious to religion, and inſenſible of virtue. It may be obſerved, however, with more propriety, that habitual ſwearing diminiſhes our ſenſe of the obligation attached to judicial oaths. Perjury was ſtill the predominant vice that tainted the morals of every rank, and infected even the breaſt of the ſovereign. Juries were perjured; their verdicts were generally procured by bribery; their corruption was notorious, and encouraged openly by Henry VII, in the iniquitous proſecution of his own ſubjects. Princes claim and obtain an exemption from vulgar honeſty; and that which is fraud and perfidy in private life, is dignified, in their tranſactions, by the appellation of policy: yet the reader muſt obſerve, with ſome ſurpriſe, the repeated examples contained in this hiſtory, of princes corroborating, by mutual oaths and the rites of religion, thoſe treaties which they had previouſly determined to fruſtrate or violate. Their treaties are at preſent neither more permanent nor more ſecure; but the intervention of oaths is wiſely omitted as a ſuperfluous adjection, not obligatory on the lax morals peculiar to princes.

To theſe crimes may be added theft and robbery, which were ſtill ſo prevalent that twenty-two thouſand criminals are ſaid to have been executed by the rigid juſtice of Henry VIII. Robbery was ſeldom attended with murder, and was probably ſtill regarded as an occupa ion, of which the guilt might be extenuated by courage and ſucceſs. Murders and aſſaſſinations are frequent however in Scottiſh hiſtory, for the people were cruel, fierce, and ungovernable; and, to judge from the deſperate crimes of the nobility, their manners were neither more ſoftened nor their paſſions better controlled and regulated. But whatever be the crimes of a people, there is in human nature a reforming principle that ultimately corrects and amends its degeneracy; and hiſtory furniſhes repeated examples of nations paſſing from even a vicious effeminacy, to an enthuſiaſm that regenerates every virtue. Such a change was effected, in a partial degree, by the reformation; which, recalling its proſelytes from the errors and abuſes of the Romiſh ſuperſtition, taught them to renounce the diſſipation and vices of the age, to aſſume the badge of ſuperior ſanctity and more rigid virtue, to ſuffer in adverſity with patience, and to encounter perſecution and death with fortitude. Sectaries, from the conſtant circumſpection requiſite in their conduct, contract an habitual and gloomy ſeverity; and foreigners, ever more obſervant than natives, diſcovered, in the preſent period, ſymptoms of that puritanical ſpirit which at the diſtance of a century

tury was deſtined to give liberty to England and law to kings.

The reformation might reflect diſcredit on recent miracles; but the period is ſtill diſtinguiſhed by exceſſive credulity. The aſtrologers in 1523, from the approach of eclipſes and planetary conjunctions, predicted inceſſant rains and deſtructive inundations: the people were alarmed; many retired to the high grounds for ſafety; the abbot of Bartholomew in Smithfield built a houſe, which he ſtored with proviſions, on Harrow of the Hill; and thoſe who repoſed in the promiſe to Noah, were ſtill apprehenſive of a partial inundation, and collected meal ſufficient for ſubſiſtence till the waters ſubſided. But the year elapſed with little rain, and the aſtrologers redeemed their credit by confeſſing a miſtake in their calculations of an hundred years. The reformers probably were leſs credulous; but, believing that the pope was antichriſt, they expected, as his power was partly broken, the ſpeedy arrival of Chriſt in judgment; and, in every unuſual appearance of the heavens, perceived, with a mixture of hope and trepidation, thoſe ſigns ſuppoſed to announce the ceſſation of time, and deſtruction of the world. An Egyptian experiment repeated by James IV exhibits the ſuperſtitious credulity of the Scots. Whether to diſcover the primitive language of the human race, or to aſcertain the firſt formation of ſpeech, he incloſed two children with a dumb attendant in Inchkeith, an uninhabited iſland of the Forth; and it was believed that the children, on arriving at maturity, communicated their ideas in pure Hebrew, the language of Paradiſe.

I would mention as an inſtance of credulity, the belief of a monſtrous production of the human ſpecies, but the concurrence of grave hiſtorians atteſts and render the fact indiſputable. This monſter was born in Scotland, and its appearance ſuggeſted the idea of twins fortuitouſly conjoined in the womb, united at the navel into a common trunk, and terminating below in the limbs of a male, but diſparted above into two bodies, diſtinct and proportioned in all their parts, each endued with ſeparate members, and animated each by a ſeparate intelligence. Their ſenſations were common when excited in the loins or inferior extremities; peculiar to one, and unfelt by the other, when produced on the particular body of either. Their perceptions were different, their mental affections unconnected, their wills independent, at times diſcordant, and again adjuſted by mutual conceſſion. They received, by the direction of James IV, ſuch liberal education as the times afforded; attained in muſic to conſiderable proficiency, and acquired a competent knowledge of various languages. Their death was miſerable: at the age of twenty-eight the one expired; and his body corrupting, tainted and putrified his living brother.

The feudal ſyſtem was productive, among other prepoſterous cuſtoms, of early marriages, formed without diſparagement of rank or birth, but without regard to diſparity of age or repugnance of ſentiment. Vaſſals during their wardſhip were at the abſolute diſpoſal of their lord, who literally ſold them, while minors, in marriage; and prudent fathers, to fruſtrate his rapacity, were careful to accelerate, before their death, the nuptials of their offſpring. The cuſtom extended beyond the neceſſity from which it originated, and the death of prince Arthur is to be aſcribed to the premature conſummation, at the age of fifteen, of his marriage with Katherine. When, on her divorce from Henry, a proof of that delicate circumſtance was requiſite, the opinion of two witneſſes, the duke of Norfolk and the earl of Shrewſbury, was founded on their own marriage at the age of prince Arthur; and it is remarkable that Herbert, the hiſtorian of theſe tranſactions, was himſelf married at the ſame age, to a woman of twenty.

Chivalry was the ſeaſon of romantic love; yet as mankind are actuated chiefly by intereſt, marriage, with few exceptions, has in every age been a ſordid bargain.

The mode which is ſtill peculiar to Britain, of ſaluting ladies, appears to have excited the ſurpriſe of foreigners; and Eraſmus, who approved of it as a laudable cuſtom, avers with pleaſantry, that whether you viſit, depart, or return, whether you aſſemble by concert, or encounter by accident, you cannot ſtir in England without an interchange of luſcious kiſſes. An interchange not ſo diſintereſted was ſupported at court, where, on the new year, the king accepted, from his nobles and clergy, of gifts from five to fifty pounds, and repaid them either with ſmiles or occaſional preſents of gilt plate. On ſolemn feſtivals, the king and his nobles beſtowed each his *largeſs* on the guards or attendants, and a herald proclaimed the different donations with much ſolemnity; but James I, delicately ſuppreſſed at his marriage, the mention of his own, when his queen's was publiſhed. Marriages, chriſtenings, and eſtabliſhed feſtivals, furniſhed frequent occaſions for convivial intercourſe; but the gentlemen are deſcribed as aſſembling at other times in fields or foreſts, with hawks and hounds, and bugles ſuſpended in ſilken baldricks. There, under the pretext of hunting, they had often concerted rebellions, or convoked their military retainers to arms; and an early ſtatute of Henry VII's ſtill prohibits their hunting in vizors, or during the darkneſs and concealment of night.

[To be concluded in our next.]

MISCELLANIES.

BIOGRAPHICAL *and* CRITICAL; ORIGINAL *or* SCARCE.

Continued from Vol. XCII, Page 426.

ANTHONY WOOD.

AMPLE juſtice has ſeldom been done to this extraordinary man. He is much indebted, however, to the labours and diſcrimination of his editor, Mr. Gutch, who has vindicated his fame as a biographer with great acuteneſs. Wood conſtantly aſſerted, that the facts related in the Athenæ Oxon. were founded upon his own knowledge of them, or elſe upon the public memorials of the times referred to upon every occaſion: the writings too of each perſon being enumerated, together with the account given of him, may ſerve as a touchſtone of the truth of the character affixed to his name; nor can any injury be done, where the reader's judgment muſt neceſſarily be directed by this appeal, made to the ſentiments openly avowed and publiſhed. Yet it may be alleged, and juſtly too, that the ſame fact may be ſo repreſented, the ſame materials ſo diſpoſed, as to make a very different appearance, and to produce very different effects, according to the art and management of the relater. This muſt be allowed; and here, perhaps, it is, that the enemies of Mr. Wood's reputation have directed their chief force. Living in times of diſcord and confuſion, it is aſſerted, that the prejudice of party, and a cloſe attachment on one ſide, have undoubtedly given a falſe tint to the portraits he draws. That reſentment at the manners of thoſe times has, in many inſtances, infuſed ſome degree of acrimony into his ſtyle, cannot be denied: yet, when we expect candour, let us alſo be candid in our judgment on this foible. Let it be conſidered that a recluſe way of life, obſervant perhaps of all moral and religious duties, may make every deviation from virtue and piety, appear much more enormous to a mind thus ſequeſtered, than it might to one more

converſant with mankind; and which being uſed to ſee variety of wickedneſs, is leſs diſguſted at the ſmaller degrees of it. Let it be conſidered alſo, that the *quorum pars fui*, though no epithet be added, will always have ſome influence on the mind, and give a poignancy to its effuſions. We muſt allow theſe to have been the caſe and ſituation of our author. He had, among many others, lamented the fall of monarchy and epiſcopacy, effected by methods unjuſt and cruel. He ſaw the fury of miſguided zeal pour forth its wrath on the ſeats of learned repoſe. He ſaw, in various departments, men of deep and extenſive literature forcibly thruſt from the chairs of ſcience, to make room for illiterate petitioners for the emoluments annexed to them. He ſaw the pulpit, from which ſound and rational doctrines had been delivered to an attentive and judicious audience, become the ſtage of cant, hypocriſy, and illiberal abſurdity. He obſerved a ſhoal of indigent pretenders to knowledge crowding from other univerſities, in hopes to ſhare the ſpoils of his unjuſtly ejected friends. He ſaw arbitrary impoſitions and engagements, contrary to former oaths already obligatory, forced upon the conſciences of thoſe, who deſired only to retain their due rights and poſſeſſions, by the patrons (as they called themſelves) of civil and religious liberty. Should it not be forgiven to an eye-witneſs of theſe tranſactions, if his pencil deſcribed them in livelier colours, than thoſe which a more diſpaſſionate painter, becauſe leſs intimately acquainted with them, would now uſe, at a diſtant period of time?

That many errors ſhould be diſcovered in ſo voluminous a work as the Athenæ Oxon. cannot be matter of ſurpriſe. It is rather difficult to conceive, how the author, in his ſituation of life, could make ſuch ample collections. His own induſtry was, indeed, unwearied, and his correſpondence ſo extenſive, that the poſtage of the letters he received, was no ſmall burthen on his narrow income.

But it may be urged, that, in ſome particulars, the gloomy diſpoſition of Wood has exhibited itſelf to the prejudice of characters, through mere perſonal diſguſt, and from much weaker incentives than thoſe already mentioned. No inſtance of this nature can be produced, perhaps, with more propriety, than the account given of Dr. South. This ſevere, and in ſome reſpects, unjuſt character of this gentleman, is ſaid to have taken riſe from a joke of the doctor's, uttered probably by him without any deſign of giving offence. Anthony Wood complained to Dr. South of a diſorder, with which he was much afflicted, and which terminated in his death, viz. a painful ſuppreſſion of urine; upon which South, in his jocoſe manner, told him, that 'if he could not make *water*, he muſt make *earth*.' It was the doctor's cuſtom, if not foible, to ſuffer neither ſacredneſs of place, nor ſolemnity of ſubject, to reſtrain his vein of humour. But it muſt be allowed that, in the preſent inſtance, the wit was illiberal and cruel: not that it deſerved ſo ſevere a puniſhment as Mr. Wood intended, and which perhaps he would afterward have mitigated; the effect of which, after all, is greatly leſſened, ſince Dr. South's character has not ſuffered much in their eſteem, who are acquainted with his jeſt: and it would have been forgiven, if the ſame kind hand which has not, in the ſecond edition of the Athenæ Oxonienſes, ſcrupled to retrench the exuberance of the author's pen, had here alſo exerted himſelf in obliterating what is neither a credit to the perſon who drew the character, nor to the object of his reprehenſion.

Cardinal de Richlieu.

The 'Teſtament Politique' is commonly attributed to the cardinal. In this work, a miniſter is introduced, gravely agitating this queſtion: 'Should the care of public education be

be committed, exclusively, to the Jesuits, or to the Franciscans?' Such a question might, naturally, proceed from the bigotted and persecuting Richlieu; but as he was not the author of the above-mentioned work, this absurdity cannot possibly be attributed to him. The 'Testament Politique' was written by another, who, to fix the reputation of his production with the public, had sheltered it under the name of the minister. Controversial and religious tracts were the only papers, belonging to the cardinal, which were discovered after his death. His niece, the duchess d'Aguillon, ordered these to be revised, corrected, and published. On politics, a subject which Richlieu always mentioned with great reserve, he wrote nothing. In France, the death of a celebrated minister was formerly as regularly followed by his political testament, as by his funeral. Colbert, Alberoni, and the marshal de Belleisle, were scarcely in their graves, when they astonished us with sentences, which, when living, they neither wrote, nor spoke. The testament of Belliſle was made by Cheyrier. Learned or witty men in England are served much in the same manner by rapacious literary hirelings, who publish what they call their sayings and jests.

Marquis de Feuquieres

Was a lieutenant-general in the French army, during the reign of Lewis XIV. His memoirs were written for the instruction of his son. Of these, an English translation was published in 1737, forming two octavo volumes. They contain an account of the several operations of the war, of the sieges which were undertaken, and the battles fought from 1672 to 1710. The military merit of this officer may be called hereditary, and seems to have descended to him from his grandfather, and father, Manasses, and Isaac de Pas, who were both deservedly celebrated for their conduct and intrepidity. The martial genius of the marquis has been honourably acknowledged, even by those compatriots whom he reviled. But while they did justice to his abilities, they were so irritated by the severity with which he attacked them, that it was humorously observed, that the marquis must be the bravest man in Europe, who slept in the very midst of a hundred thousand enemies. His work contains a list of the mistakes committed by the French generals. A propensity to censure has sometimes seduced him into a misrepresentation of facts. Perhaps the loss of a marshal's staff occasioned such reprehensible passages in a performance where so much is to be admired.

The Count de Boulainvilliers.

This gentleman, after a finished education, passed the earlier part of his life in the army, and quitting it, to adjust the confusion of his family affairs, he indulged every opportunity of mixing with an attention to private concerns, a close application to the study of history. Voltaire imagined, that he must have excelled all others on this subject, if he had not been too systematical. His account of the ancient parliaments of Paris is translated by Mr. Forman, and was printed in 1739, in two octavo volumes. An author, who declared the feudal government to be the master-piece of human institutions, had reason to expect opponents. The president Henault, and Montesquieu, entirely reject his opinion, relative to the beginning of the French monarchy. Such polite writers could differ from him, without incivility; but Boulainvilliers has been attacked by those, who thought the mildness and zeal of Christianity were not to be united. His 'Life of Mahomet,' a posthumous work, and left unfinished at his death, excited, and in a great degree, justly, so unfavourable an idea of his religious principles, that his memory has been blackened with imputations, which, probably, he did not merit.

Du Bos.

When Torcy, one of the greateſt miniſters of the court of France, preſided over the department for foreign affairs, he conſidered abbé Du Bos as a neceſſary acquiſition, and employed him in different tranſactions of importance, in Germany, Italy, Holland, and England. By his conduct, during the treaty of Utrecht, he gained the character of an able negociator. The variety and extent of his talents, as a writer, are viſible in his works, which, with all their errors, afford a ſolid teſtimony of deep learning and refined taſte. The author of the age Lewis XIV, has, not without reaſon, commended the 'Reflections on Poetry and Painting;' a performance in which Du Bos amply atones for ſome few miſtakes, by the diverſity, novelty, and weight of his remarks. Order and preciſion are often wanting; yet the writer not only thinks himſelf, but makes his readers think. It was ſolely from what he had ſeen, and meditated on, that ſuch excellent materials were raiſed into a pleaſing ſtructure, by one ignorant of muſic, unable to make a verſe, and at no period of his life, in poſſeſſion of a picture. In his 'Hiſtory of four emperors of the name of Gordianus, proved and illuſtrated by medals,' he ſupports his opinion, in oppoſition to the generally received notion, that there were three emperors, with much erudition, and more modeſty. Beſide other works, Du Bos publiſhed, in 1704, a tract entitled, 'Les Interets de l'Angleterre mal entendus dans la Guerre preſente,' in his account of which, abbé Lenglet is probably not miſtaken, when he mentions it, as being very favourably received in France, but making no impreſſion on the Engliſh.

Monteſquieu.

It is not generally known that the celebrated earl of Cheſterfield was ſo ſenſible of the merit of Monteſquieu, that he inſerted in the public papers of February 1755, the following character of that philoſopher: 'On the 10th of this month, died at Paris, univerſally and ſincerely regretted, Charles Secondat, baron of Monteſquieu, and preſident à mortier, of the parliament of Bourdeaux. His virtues did honour to human nature; his writings, juſtice. A friend to mankind, he aſſerted their undoubted, and unalienable rights with freedom, even in his own country, whoſe prejudices, in matters of religion and government, he had long lamented, and endeavoured, not without ſome ſucceſs, to remove. He well knew, and juſtly admired, the happy conſtitution of this country, where fixed and known laws equally reſtrain monarchy from tyranny, and liberty from licentiouſneſs. His works will illuſtrate his name, and ſurvive him, as long as right reaſon, moral obligation, and the true *ſpirit of laws* ſhall be underſtood, reſpected and maintained.'

During the fatal illneſs of Monteſquieu, he was waited on, in conſequence of an order from the king, by the duke de Nivernois: at this interview, the topic, perhaps alſo by command, was religion. 'I have always,' ſaid the baron, 'reſpected Chriſtianity, and thought the morality of the goſpel the nobleſt gift, which the Supreme Being could have beſtowed on man.' When father Routh, an Iriſh Jeſuit, and his confeſſor, preſſed him to deliver up the corrections, which he had made for the Perſian Letters, Monteſquieu gave the manuſcript to the ducheſs d'Aguillon, and, deſiring her to conſult his well-wiſhers on the propriety of its publication, added, 'I will ſacrifice every thing to reaſon, and to religion, but nothing to the Jeſuits.' This illuſtrious woman, who ſcarcely ever left her dying friend, may claim the honour of having preſerved his writings. One day, when ſhe had retired to dinner, Routh, after diſmiſſing the ſecretary, who was the only perſon remaining in the room, locked the door. The ducheſs, unexpectedly returning, and hearing the

baron

baron ſpeak with great emotion, inſiſted on being admitted. As ſhe upbraided Routh with the barbarity of tormenting one in his laſt moments, Monteſquieu complained that he would have forced from him the key of his eſcrutoir, in order to obtain his papers. Routh pleaded, in his defence, obedience to the will of his ſuperiors. He was diſmiſſed, without having executed his purpoſes. This was the Jeſuit, who, after the deceaſe of Monteſquieu, publiſhed a pretended letter, in which that injured writer is made to declare, 'that it was a taſte for novelty and ſingularity; a deſire to be eſteemed a genius, ſuperior to all common prejudices, all vulgar rules; an inclination to catch at the applauſe of thoſe, who could direct the tide of popular eſteem, and who never beſtow their praiſe ſo freely, as when they ſeem authorized in throwing off the yoke of dependence and conſtraint, which occaſioned him to take arms againſt religion.'—In the library of M. de Secondat, the ſon, were ſix quarto manuſcript volumes, entitled, Materials for the Spirit of Laws: Arſaces, a moral and political romance; and ſome ſcraps of the hiſtory of Theoderic, king of the Oſtrogoths. In 1758, M. de Leyre publiſhed 'The Genius of Monteſquieu,' a judicious extract from the fine ſentiments, which enrich his works. Here, as the abridger elegantly obſerves, are only links, diſunited from a long chain; but they are links of gold.

PIOUS FRAUD.

THE *Truce of God* was eſtabliſhed under the reign of Henry I of France, in 1041. It was ſhrewdly imagined, that nothing but the pretended interpoſition of a miracle, could in the leaſt degree humanize barbarians; and therefore a biſhop of Aquitaine, committing a pious fraud, declared that an angel from heaven had delivered to him a writing, in which men were commanded to ceaſe from hoſtilities. As this impoſture was practiſed in a ſeaſon of public calamity, when even the worſt minds adopt ſome faint idea of the neceſſity of diverting the divine vengeance, it was naturally received with a degree of reverence. Not to have relieved the tedious hours of penitence with one ſweet interval of murder, had been too ample a conceſſion; the week was, therefore, abſurdly chequered with days of abſtinence and days of deſtruction. Private battles were prohibited by law, from the evening of each Wedneſday, until the morning of the enſuing Monday, in veneration of that portion of the week, which the Saviour hallowed with the laſt myſteries of his life; but as there were nearly three days, in which the religious compliment was unneceſſary, all thought themſelves at liberty, during that welcome period, to

'Cry havock; and let looſe the dogs of war.'

[To be continued.]

ON THE PREVALENCE OF GAMING.

THERE are ſome ſubjects on which the imagination delights to dwell, although it be nearly exhauſted, and on which men are pleaſed to write, although conſcious that they can advance nothing new. Yet ſome merit may be allowed to thoſe, who think it their duty to reprobate a vice while it continues to exiſt, even although they have no weapons to wield which have not been wielded a thouſand times; and it is by perſeverance only in the exhibition of a few plain and well-known truths, that the public are at length awakened to a ſenſe of ſhame, and inſpired with a zeal to reform. Such is the blame and ſuch is the praiſe, which muſt attach to him who reaſons againſt the vice of gaming, upon which ſo much has been written, and written in vain, upon which ſo little that is new can be advanced, and which, nevertheleſs, if it does yield, muſt yield to a long con-

continued oppoſition, and to reiterated complaints.

There is one reaſon, indeed, why we ſhould not be ſlack in our endeavours, nor relax from the fervour of a ſteady and well conducted oppoſition, which I hope will have its weight. This is the *increaſing* prevalence of gaming, its deſcent among the lower claſſes of ſociety, and the cool indifference with which its direſt ravages are contemplated by the bulk of mankind. Men ſeem to be ſenſible that it is an infatuation approaching to lunacy, and they forget the feelings of indignation in the language of ſympathy; but it may be doubted whether pity be in this caſe well employed, and whether we are juſtified in yielding any one point to the advocates of gaming, a vice that in one reſpect, at leaſt, exceeds all others, becauſe it is committed in the cooleſt moments of reaſon, and the ſyſtem of it is carried on with ſtudy, deliberation, and regular, buſineſs-like perſeverance. We cannot ſay this of crimes which proceed from the cravings of neceſſity, or from the ſudden impulſe of paſſion. We can ſeldom, indeed, ſay this of theft, or murder. But gaming includes every vice in itſelf.

It includes avarice and ingratitude. It implies a total alienation from the ſoft and ſympathetic feelings of our nature. The gambler, by profeſſion, is an enemy to the whole human race, and knows no tie by which men are bound to relieve and aſſiſt one another. If he does a generous action, or what ſome may term ſo, it ariſes from profuſion rather than benevolence, and it is very rare that he does not repay himſelf for one ſuch act, by committing ſome great miſchief elſewhere. The *honour* of a gameſter is perhaps among the moſt ridiculous expreſſions in our language, for every profeſſed gambler knows that his occupation would be nothing, if he did not ſtudy, by every poſſible means, to take advantage of his antagoniſt, and eſpecially to take the baſeſt, moſt wicked, and yet ſpecious advantages of youth, ignorance, good-nature, and inexperience. Such is the true character of a profeſſed gameſter, and did ever any man contemplate ſuch a character without abhorrence?

'Gaming,' ſays an eminent writer, 'ſeems to have overturned, not only the ambition of excellence, but the deſire of pleaſure; to have extinguiſhed the flames of the lover, as well as of the patriot, and threatens, in its further progreſs, to deſtroy all diſtinctions, both of rank and ſex, to cruſh all emulation but that of fraud, to corrupt all thoſe claſſes of our people, whoſe anceſtors have, by their virtue, their induſtry, or their parſimony, given them the power of living in extravagance, idleneſs, and vice, and to leave them without knowledge, but of the modiſh games, and without wiſhes, but for lucky hands.'

An opinion like this given forty years ago, is ſurely more applicable in the preſent day; much of this propheſy is, indeed, fulfilled. The ambition of excellence in what is praiſeworthy, and the deſire of rational pleaſure, are nearly gone; gaming deſtroys the paſſions, or rather directs them all to one object, and that the moſt diſgraceful to a liberal and generous mind, the love of gain. And when we find this love predominant in a young mind, we cannot but conſider it as ſomething unnatural; it is, however, the very eſſence and characteriſtic of gambling, to effect changes in our diſpoſition and frame of temper, which nothing elſe can bring about.

We are not entirely without laws againſt this vice, but they have little or no effect; this would be the caſe were they even multiplied; for this is one of thoſe peculiar caſes, in which laws will produce no good without the co-operation of the ſpirit of the people. Laws can, at beſt, correct only certain ſymptoms of public licentiouſneſs; but the body of the people only can render a vice like this odious and unfaſhionable. The laws, if duly carried into execution, might aboliſh pub-

public gaming houſes, but they could not enter private houſes; and it is a well-known fact that, in point of miſchief, no public gaming houſes exceed the routs and card parties of certain *perſons of diſtinction*, as they call themſelves, though that diſtinction is only a priority in vice, and a ſuperiority in the unbluſhing boaſt of public infamy.

The proſpect to the riſing generation is truly dark and melancholy. How many opulent families have already been overturned by this pernicious habit! How many rich and ample eſtates are embarraſſed almoſt beyond redemption! How often have the diſtinctions of rank and title been ſwallowed up, not by a decree of infatuated legiſlators, but by the voluntary reſignation of the owners, who preferred, to the honour of their anceſtors, and the dignity of hereditary worth, the low emulation of ſharpers, and the ambition of that excellence, which to attain is degrading, and to practiſe is a crime!

T. O.

POLITICAL CANT.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

The following humorous Letters were handed about ſome Time ago in Scotland, but have not yet appeared in this Country. They are attributed to the Pen of Dr. Beattie, *whoſe Talent for Humour, although of the firſt Rate, is known principally to his moſt intimate Friends. I am, yours, &c.*

VIATOR.

To MR. ——

SIR,

WHEN I was laſt in London, ſeveral years ago, I was one of a club of honeſt gentlemen, who uſed to meet on Saturday night, at the Cat and Bagpipes, near Amen-corner. To this club I had been introduced by Mr. Nicholas Newfangle, of the Old Jewry. He was at that time a citizen of good ſubſtance, and a fair character: no man kept more regular books, or could be more punctual in anſwering a letter, and executing a commiſſion. But of late I was much ſurpriſed to ſee in his letters ſome very ſingular phraſes, which I did not underſtand, and could not find either in Bailey's Dictionary, or in Johnſon's; whereupon I wrote to another member of the club, and begged to know what was the matter with my old friend. The anſwer was ſomewhat ambiguous (for a merchant's character is, you know, a very delicate thing) however, I could gather from it, that Mr. Newfangle had, ſince the concluſion of the late war, become rather inattentive to buſineſs; wore a monſtrous large pair of ſhoe-buckles, and a couple of watches, (one in each fob) was continually in the coffeehouſe, poring on newſpapers and political pamphlets; and that all the club had taken notice of a ſurpriſing change in his dialect. Notwithſtanding this intelligence, I continued to write to him occaſionally, though not ſo often as before; but now I am afraid I muſt drop the correſpondence; for his laſt letter is altogether beyond my comprehenſion. I ſhowed it the other day to an Engliſh rider; who, on reading it, ſwore it was *damned clever*, and that the gentleman, whoever he was, had a *deviliſh good pen*. I agreed with him that the hand-writing was well enough; and begged, if he underſtood the letter, that he would read it to me in Engliſh. 'In Engliſh?' ſays he, 'is not this Engliſh? Ay, faith, and *tip-top* Engliſh too, of the neweſt and beſt pattern; I tell you, ſir, it is quite *the thing*;' and he added, rather uncivilly, I think, 'but it can hardly be

be expected, that a Scotch trader should underſtand the polite language of the metropolis.' I could not help telling him, that I formerly lived ſeven years in London, and had read many of the beſt books in the language, had ſtudied grammar, and logic too, and was generally allowed to pen as good a letter as my neighbours. '*The D—l you are*,' ſaid he, with a ſneer: 'A Scotchman pen a good letter!' and left me abruptly. I do not like, my good ſir, to be called the *devil*: and I cannot imagine why he ſhould give that title. I have ſince ſhown this extraordinary letter to ſome of my neighbours; and we are all at our wits end about it. I therefore ſend it to you, ſir, with a requeſt, that you will publiſh it; and if any learned correſpondent of yours will be kind enough to explain it, I ſhall willingly allow him a reaſonable compenſation. I had almoſt forgot to tell you, that the aſſertion in the beginning is not ſtrictly true; I never made uſe of the words there imputed to me. The reſt is to me Greek and Hebrew; but the concluſion is a good joke. He bids me ſend him two encloſures, and yet he knows I never was maſter of a rood of land ſince I was born. And then to deſire me to encloſe my encloſures in a letter to a member of parliament, becauſe poſtage is *heavy*:—I fear, I fear, my friend's head is—you underſtand me. This is all the needful from, worthy, ſir, your humble ſervant to command till death,

JONATHAN JOGTROT.

THE LETTER.

Old Jewry, London, April 1.

Mr. Jonathan Jogtrot,

Dear Sir,

You ſay the *idea* of *reform* which you intend to *bring forward* in your country, *holds out* great advantages to the community *at large*, as well as to the perſons concerned. I would gladly *meet your ideas* and *your wiſhes*; but, though I own I have not yet *made up my mind* upon the ſubject, I take the liberty to tell you, that, at the *firſt bluſh of the buſineſs*, it ſeems to me to be *inimical* to that *reciprocity* of intereſts, which has regulated our tranſactions hitherto, and will, I hope, continue to do ſo *in future*. An *idea* of the ſame kind was *ſtarted* about a year ago, when *brought forward* by a gentleman, whoſe *line of conduct* is generally thought unexceptionable.—Were I now to *meet your arguments*, I ſhould only *go over the ſame ground*, which you know I *went over* long ago, when you favoured me with a *viſitation* at the time I was confined to bed by the gout. I laid your remonſtrances before the club; but, though I was an hour *on my legs*, and *went into a variety of matter*, and was very *well heard*, they *ſet little ſtore* by what I ſaid; in a word, they *negatived* the whole. I have been urgent with Mr. Dolittle to be ſomewhat more *expeditive* in the *tranſferral* of the property you mention. I have ſome character to ſupport among my neighbours, being, as you know, a juſtice of the peace; and I have told him of my having *committed myſelf* ſeveral times in this affair; but he ſtill puts me off: which muſt be imputed to his want of *exactitude* in buſineſs. You aſk many queſtions about young ſir Squanderbeg Scullrattle; but on *his ſubject* I am not yet prepared to ſpeak. The report of a fever having put *an end to his exiſtence*, was *unfounded*. His father's *idea* was, to breed him *in ſome profeſſional line*; but whether he will be *agreeable to that*, I much doubt. At laſt Newmarket races, I hear he *ſported* a fine new phaeton and pair.

You aſk for news. I have only to tell you, that ſome ſhips have been *captured* in the Mediterranean, and that paper currency *on the other ſide of the water* begins to *depreciate*, and will probably continue to do ſo, till the preſent troubles *determine*. A letter from Yarmouth ſays, that capt. Blackbeard of the *Devil-to-pay* frigate, has *captivated* the Empreſs Queen, a very

very large veſſel, with a rich cargo of muſlin and French brandy. There are violent diſputes *in the commons*, but *in the lords* they ſeem to acquieſce in every thing. Write me ſoon. Alderman Greenfat alſo expects a letter. Send both your *enclóſures*, poſtage being now very *heavy*, under cover to Mr. Ayeno, M. P. I am, with the *moſt perfect conſideration*, dear ſir, your very humble ſervant,

NIC. NEWFANGLE.

P. S. Our friend the alderman tells me, and what he ſays is commonly *marked with authenticity*, that by a late adventure in the alley, he *netted a cool three thouſand*, but he has loſt his wife, and yeſterday *ſported fables* on the occaſion. *A propos*, my dear ſir, why are you not a little more modiſh in the ſtyle of your letter? *Lard*, ſir, your language has no more *ton* in it, than the pedantic and old faſhioned ſtuff of Addiſon and Swift. My friend ſir Giles Gibberiſh *had it in contemplation* to *bring forward* a bill *in the commons*, for encouraging the manufacture of new words. But we were told, that a great majority in both houſes would *bluſh the queſtion*, that a certain great perſonage, who is known to be an admirer of Addiſon, would be moſt *inimical* to it, and that it would be *ſcouted* by both the univerſities. *O Tim Perry, O Morrice!* N. N.

HUME's HISTORY.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

ALTHOUGH the merit of Hume's Hiſtory of England is ſo fully acknowledged, that no perſon has ventured to compare any other hiſtory with it, yet this able and ſagacious hiſtorian has occaſionally fallen into an error, common enough with hiſtorians of a meaner claſs; I mean, venturing to peep into futurity, and to predict events conformable to his own theory. I was very much ſtruck with reading the following paſſage in vol. vi. page 188. Edition 1791.

After giving an account of the firſt ſettling of Engliſh colonies in America, in James the firſt's time, Mr. Hume ſays;

'Speculative reaſoners, during that age, raiſed many objections to the planting of thoſe remote colonies; and foretold that, after draining their mother country of inhabitants, they would ſoon ſhake off her yoke, and *erect an independent government* in America: but time has ſhown, that the views entertained by thoſe who encouraged ſuch generous undertakings, were more juſt and ſolid: a mild government and great naval force have preſerved, and may ſtill preſerve, during ſome time, the dominion of England over her colonies.'

We have in this paſſage as much to admire the ſagacity of the ſpeculative reaſoners, near two hundred years ago, as to wonder at the want of foreſight in Mr Hume, who, living in the reign of George III, did not obſerve many ſymptoms, which indicated in the colonies a deſire of independence. Who the ſpeculative reaſoners were, who foreſaw the revolt of the colonies from their firſt eſtabliſhment, he has not told us. They were probably ſome of the men who conducted the parliamentary oppoſition againſt the arbitrary meaſures of Eliſabeth and James; but whoever they were, we muſt acknowledge that they reconcile us to pay more attention to ſuch conjectures than we are generally apt to pay. The man who throws out a prophetic conjecture, that oppoſes the preſent theory, or ſome favourite plan we may have adopted, is commonly beheld with an evil eye. Far more gratifying, no doubt, was Mr. Hume's reaſoning; but a very few years experience ſhowed that it was merely the reaſoning of a ſpeculative man in his cloſet, inattentive to what was paſſing on the great theatre of the tranſatlantic world. I am, ſir, yours, &c. LECTOR.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, July 1793.

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	29,88	64	60	47,5	5	SW 2	. chiefly drizzling or gentle rain
	2	29,88	64	64,5	47,5	4	WNW 1	. little wet. fine eve
2	7	30,07	55,5	61	46	3	WNW 1	
	2	30,12	66,5	64	50	4	W 2	. little wet. fine
3	7	30,27	56	64	46	2	W 1	
	2	30,27	69,5	66	41	2	WSW 2	. cloudy night
4	7	30,22	58	64	44	5	SW 1	. little rain : fine
	2	30,17	69	66	41	3	SW 2	
5	7	30,29	63	66	47,5	3	WSW 2	
	2	30,24	77,5	70	43,5	3	W 2	
6	7	30,34	65	69	50,5	5	W 2	. fine
	2	30,31	82	74	44,5	2	WSW 1	
7	7	30,20	69	72	47,5	1	SW 1	
	2	30,10	85	77	40	1	WSW 1	. Thermometer 86
8	7	30,13	70,5	73,5	48	1	N 1	
N	2	30,12	82	78,5	42,5	1	E 2	: cloudy
9	7	30,14	66,5	71	42,5	4	E 1	. fine
	2	30,13	77	75	42	1	E 2	
10	7	30,09	65	71	47,5	1	E 1	
	2	30,12	81,5	75,5	35,5	1	E 1	. cloudy eve and little lightning
11	7	30,05	64,5	72	45,5	5	E 1	. fine
	2	30,01	81	76	39	1	E 1	. wind NE at night
12	7	30,03	62	73,5	45	1	NE 1	
	2	30,03	63	77	36,5	1	E 2	
13	7	30,14	66	70	46,5	1	NNE 1	
	2	30,15	82	76,5	38	1	E 1	
14	7	30,23	61,5	70	42,5	1	ENE 1	
	2	30,19	80	76	37,5	0	ESE 1	
15	7	30,19	64	69,5	40	2	E 1	
	2	30,16	81,5	74,5	36	2	ESE 1	
16	7	29,99	61,5	72	40	1	E 0	hazy
	2	29,88	85,5	77	35	1	SW 2	. Thermometer 87
17	7	29,85	61	71	46	1	WSW 1	. cloudy. fine
	2	29,92	75,5	75,5	39	3	SW 2	. cloudy night : rain
18	7	29,88	62,5	71	43	4	W 1	. gentle rain at times
	2	29,77	66,5	72	44	5	W 1	much gentle rain. fair eve : little wet
19	7	29,79	61,5	66,5	47	4	SSW 2	
	2	29,79	68	70	40	4	SW 1	. fine eve
20	7	29,89	55,5	66	43	4	WSW 1	. ſhowers
	2	29,96	64,5	68	42,5	4	N 1	. ſhowers. fair eve
21	7	30,23	55	64	42,5	3	N 1	
	2	30,23	64,5	65,5	38,5	3	N 1	
22	7	30,23	56	64,5	44,5	3	SE 2	
	2	30,19	68,5	67,5	39,5	4	SSW 2	
23	7	30,04	62	66,5	44	5	S 2	: drizzling rain
F	2	30,04	65	69	46	5	S 2	. leſs cloudy night
24	7	30,04	64,5	67	50	4	SW 1	: fine
	2	30,06	75	71	44,5	3	W 1	: cloudy
25	7	30,06	65,5	70	47,5	5	WSW 1	: fine
	2	30,06	72,5	72	44	3	SW 1	
26	7	30,11	62	68,5	46	3	SW 2	hazy. more cloudy
	2	30,10	72,5	72	42,5	4	W 1	hazy. more cloudy night
27	7	30,04	65,5	70,5	49,5	5	ENE 1	. much gentle rain
	2	30,00	64,5	69,5	52	5	E 1	heavy and continual rain : fair morn
28	7	29,96	58	65	52	5	N 1	little wet at times
	2	29,95	63	67,5	45,5	5	N 2	. leſs cloudy eve
29	7	29,93	54,5	64,5	46,5	5	NW 1	. leſs cloudy
	2	29,97	63,5	65	42,5	4	WNW 1	. fine. clear night
30	7	30,00	56,5	63	47	1	NW 1	hazy
	2	30,00	70	68	42,5	3	SW 2	. clear night : rain
31	7	29,94	60,5	66	50	5	S 1	rain. fine
	2	29,99	69,5	68	45	3	W 1	

OBER-

OBSERVATIONS *on the* DISEASES *in* July 1793.

THE ſcarlet fever began to decline early in the month, and before its termination was a rare diſeaſe. Inflammatory ſore throat was the moſt prevailing complaint; the tonſils were in general much enlarged, and ſuppuration frequently took place; the fever which accompanied it was for the moſt part conſiderable: the uſe of gargles fully ſaturated with the mineral acids, and inhaling the vapour from boiling vinegar, relaxed the inflamed glands, and by increaſing the ſecretion of mucus, proved abundantly uſeful; when theſe remedies were uſed early, ſuppuration ſeldom took place; bliſters to the throat were very beneficial, and after proper evacuations, when the fever began to ſubſide, bark, uſed as a gargle, and taken as a medicine, ſoon completed the cure. The ſmallpox and meaſles appeared here and there; the ſymptoms of the former were ſimilar to thoſe of the laſt month, and the latter were very mild. Small angry eruptions, which terminated in a deſquamation of the cuticle, were particularly frequent in ſcrophulous habits; perſpiration, produced by the heat of the weather, ſeemed to occaſion them, but much relief was in general experienced, and many uneaſy ſenſations peculiar to ſuch habits were removed, on their appearance. Great proſtration of ſtrength, accompanied with conſiderable depreſſion of ſpirits, in perſons of a full and lax habit, univerſally prevailed: theſe ſymptoms may very juſtly be attributed to the uncommon heat of the weather, the thermometer having riſen higher this month than it has done for many years paſt. In the latter part of the month, when the weather became cooler, autumnal diarrhœas, with *cholera morbus*, were very prevalent; but theſe diſeaſes were even met with during the greateſt heat, and evidently proceeded from the imprudent expoſure of the body when heated, and from drinking largely of cold liquors; ſome few caſes of anaſarca were likewiſe produced by the ſame means; and the eating of cold vegetables, ſuch as cucumber, and unripe fruit, contributed alſo to the former diſeaſes: laxatives of rhubarb frequently repeated, reſtoring the perſpiration, and drinking plentifully of weak diluting liquors, ſoon removed theſe complaints.

CAUSES *of the* CHANGES *in* NATIONAL MANNERS.

[Tranſlated from the French.]

THE manners of a nation change by the more or leſs wealth both of private perſons and the ſtate.

By great improvements in arts and trades, relative to the eaſe and convenience of life.

By the increaſe of certain branches of trade.

By a greater attachment to glory than pleaſure, or by a greater attachment to pleaſure than glory.

By opinions on the ſupreme excellency of different kinds of glory.

Sometimes this change of manners may proceed from a genius of a powerful elocution, though fanatical: fanatics have an overbearing eloquence, and among the ignorant, fanaticiſm ſpreads as it were by contact.

Long wars, either inteſtine or foreign, may produce theſe changes of manners.

The manners of a nation may be influenced by thoſe of another nation, which, by ſucceſs in war, has acquired the dominion over it.

New manners and new uſages, particularly ſpring up from new inſtitutions, for the recompenſe of ſuch virtues and talents as are moſt uſeful to ſociety. Men naturally ſeek after diſtinction, and this is never more effectually obtained than in poſts and employ-

employments: now, if this substantial distinction be attainable, without having any greater share of useful abilities or virtues than the bulk of mankind, and money will do the business, by purchasing those posts and employments, it is not at all strange that riches should be much more valued than any virtues, or the most useful talents. But should some minister, the tender father of the people, warmed with a magnanimous goodness, break through the obstructions of combined incapacity and vice, and suppress among us that execrable venality of posts and employments; if, in order to fill them with worthy subjects, he should in each principal profession erect different classes of different ages; and that they who distinguish themselves by their abilities and virtues might be precisely known; if a commission of well conducted enquiry, and examination were established, soon should we see a very great change in our opinions, of what is more or less estimable, and consequently in the nation's manners.

Military men, about the year 1600, were more acquainted with fatigue than in 1740; beside the weight of their defensive arms, their offensive were heavier; if they ate with the same pleasure, still it was with fewer preparatives, and less daintiness.*

When it came to be observed that the loss of a battle did not draw after it the loss of a province, if any fortified places remained, every prince fell to fortifying; that he might not be stripped of his territories all in one day, and the horse being of little use in taking towns, that corps has been retrenched, and the foot increased.

For courage our military men are little inferior to what they were in 1600; that quality has been pretty well kept in use by our continual foreign wars; it may even be said, that there is now a greater emulation among the officers than in 1000, there being more posts, more commissions, more governments, and more pensions to bestow.

But as yet no commission is established for the proper distribution of these rewards, and the minister regards only the recommendations of his favourites of both sexes, or the attachment of the competitors to him; worthless men are preferred over officers of unexceptionable merit, which is a vile discouragement, and very much damps the useful spirit of emulation; accordingly, distinction in the discharge of duty has little share in their thoughts; to wriggle into favour with the ministers, their minions, the women, and even with the ministers' clerks, is the main business.

As there is no European court, which has such a multitude of favours to bestow, so in ours, above all others, it is so necessary to endeavour, by every stretch of adulation and complyance, to please, that it may be said no courtiers come up to ours for external politeness. But do not be mistaken; this politeness is mere outside; for those very men who embrace, who praise a courtier in favour, and protest an inviolable devotedness to him, shall, the next moment, do him an ill turn; and indeed it is only your inexperienced country-gentlemen, who take a courtier's compliments for service.

* These remarks, as the reader may perceive, were written some years ago, while the French monarchy and manners were established. The greater part of them, *mutatis mutandis*, will apply to the changes in the state of manners in this country, and on that account, as well as their intrinsic value, are deserving of attention. Historians in general have been but little attentive to the *manners* of nations, contenting themselves with those great and bold actions, which are pretty much the same in all. It is only from detached parts of writings that we can collect information relative to the changes of national manners, and the causes of these. Yet this is a study of the highest importance, and there is scarce one that would afford more rational amusement.

Yet it muſt be owned, that however light this coin of external politeneſs may be, it is of no ſmall uſe in converſation; for of the neceſſity of mutually ſaying every day things diſagreeable to one another, were we to declare our real thoughts, and the neceſſity of a few polite reciprocations of polite deceit, the latter is much preferable, with an allowance to the knowing of large deductions from the eſteem expreſſed by ſuch politeneſs.

Farther, it is not at all ſtrange that courtiers ſhould be hacknied in diſſimulation and deceit; otherwiſe how could they live eaſy one with another, being always in competition for poſts, employments, governments, eſteem, favours, and every one conceiving himſelf to have more merit than any of the candidates? Frankneſs would be productive of continual brawls and quarrels.

Our court-ladies, like women of low minds, delight in ornament and ſplendour; and they being a rule to other ladies, and likewiſe to the courtiers, elegance and richneſs of dreſs are become a merit at court. This futile taſte Lewis XIV had imbibed in his childhood, and to be the firſt in ſome ſtriking faſhion, was the ſtudy of every one; not a few carried theſe expences to a moſt culpable exceſs, wronging the induſtrious tradeſman; if they ingratiated themſelves with thoſe whoſe notice they aimed at in ſuch magnificence, they were very eaſy about the contempt of the honeſt part of mankind, the diſtreſſes and imprecations of their credi ors.

The expence of furniture and the table runs much higher than threeſcore years ago, and from the continual improvements in the arts adminiſtering to eaſe and luxury, they will continue to increaſe. The bulk of the rich, in the want of diſtinguiſhing talents, ſtick at nothing to diſtinguiſh themſelves by monſtrous expences; a man of wealth is very often ſtupid enough to ſet himſelf above the man of virtue and abilities, with a ſlender fortune; living in a ſtately palace, amid ſilk and velvet, paintings, ſculptures, gold and ſilver, and gems, he of courſe muſt be a great deal ſuperior to a virtuous man, who has nothing of all this finery. This is the uſual judgment of the vulgar, and it is ſurpriſing, what numbers of quality are vulgar in this point.

At the beginning of the laſt century, coaches came into faſhion, and for ſome time in all Paris they ſcarce amounted to a hundred, and were uſed only by ladies of the higheſt diſtinction. As Paris, in 1658, was not properly paved, and the dirt carts not ſufficient for clearing the ſtreets, there was no going abroad but on horſeback, and booted, and the half-boots and gilded ſpurs were a long time uſed in common viſits: even they who had neither coach nor ſaddle horſe, viſited in white half-boots. The firſt coach with glaſs windows, and a glaſs in the front, was brought from Bruſſels in 1660, by the prince of Condé; ſince which, many improvements have been made in them for eaſe and ornament; how theſe vehicles have heightened luxury and ſoftneſs, beſide the unhappy effects of them on the health and vigour, as diminiſhing the exerciſe of the body! It is this diminution of exerciſe, and the increaſe of feaſting, which have introduced theſe complaints of vapours, weak nerves, vertigoes, and other kinds of indiſpoſition ſo common among the rich and indolent.

In the civil wars, every one wore a ſword, eſpecially officers and gentry: many citizens likewiſe, in order to paſs for officers or gentlemen, or at leaſt for perſons above the commonalty, alſo ſtuck a ſword by their ſides, and have ſince kept it as an ornament; and now, in a profound peace wear it in viſits, and even at church, which is both inconvenient and ridiculous; for where is the great difference between carrying a great blunderbuſs to church, or on a viſit, and to go to theſe places with a ſword dangling at their heels? Beſides, the

ſword, at preſent, is become ſo common, as not to be the diſtinction of a real gentleman; theſe are the remains of our civil wars: the cuſtom of wearing ſwords may ſee its period, as that of the half-boots and gilded ſpurs; but it would be proper that the gentlemen ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the commoner by ſome other mark.

The year 1648 was the era of card-playing at court. Cardinal Mazarine played deep, and with fineſſe, and eaſily drew in the king and queen to countenance this new entertainment; ſo that every one who had any expectation at court, learned to play at cards. Soon after the humour changed, and games of chance came into vogue, to the ruin of many conſiderable families; this was likewiſe very deſtructive to health; for beſide the various paſſions it excited, whole nights were ſpent at this execrable amuſement; the worſt of all was, that card-playing, which the court had taken from the army, ſoon ſpread from the court to the city, and from the city pervaded the country towns. Before this there was ſomething of improving converſation, every one was ambitious of qualifying himſelf for it, by reading of ancient and modern books; memory and reflexion were much more exerciſed. On the introduction of gaming, men likewiſe left off tennis, mall, billiards, and other gymnaſtic ſports, and they are become what we ſee them, weaker and more ſickly, more ignorant, leſs poliſhed, and more diſſipated.

The women, who till then had commanded reſpect, accuſtomed men to treat them familiarly by ſpending the whole night with them at play; they are often under a neceſſity of borrowing either to play, or to pay their loſſes; and how very ductile and complying they are to thoſe of whom they muſt borrow, is well known. This gaming is one of the greateſt banes of the ſtate; ſeveral trials have been made for ſuppreſſing games of chance, but I do not know whether, to bring this about, all card-playing, all gaming, and playing of any kind, ſhould not be totally proſcribed; a continual obſervation of moderation being more difficult than at once abſolutely to break with all kind of play.

The ſelling of poſts has extinguiſhed the greateſt part of our emulation, to acquire the talents requiſite for them: as money makes a counſellor, a preſident, &c. without regard to birth or ability, the worthleſs ſons of financiers and merchants are preferred even to worthy noblemen, but who have not wherewith to purchaſe; hence two evils, the number of financiers increaſe to the multiplication of uſury and oppreſſion; and the ſons of wealthy merchants, inſtead of continuing the commerce of their fathers, which was a national advantage, are proud of inveſting themſelves with the gown. Thus infamous and detrimental is the preſent path to the employments and dignities of the law.

This ſame venom of corruption, in 1650, crept into the military employments; age, experience, ſervices, or tried courage, were not required in a colonel; money ſtood in ſtead of every thing; the eccleſiaſtical employments about the houſehold were alſo ſold; and this has likewiſe been extended to the navy and ordnance, that one day it muſt inevitably prove a principal cauſe of the nation's overthrow, unleſs it be our happineſs ſoon to have a prince, who will generouſly annul that peſtiferous ſale of poſts and employments.

Every thinking perſon muſt know that the chief way to obtain paradiſe, is to do no wrong, no hurt to huſband, wife, ſervants, maſters, or ſtranger, as diſpleaſing to God; that the ſecond way is, to procure them all the comforts and good things in our power, as acceptable to him; yet, in conformity to the uſage of our forefathers, which alſo owe their riſe to an ancient ignorance, thoſe two eſſential ways abovementioned are neglected, and we have recourſe to ways incomparably leſs efficacious;

a mul-

a multitude of ceremonies, long recitations of prayers, faſtings, pilgrimages, for which neither the poor nor the ignorant, nor our neighbours, or they whom we have wronged or hurt, are a whit the better.

Tavern exceſſes, which had been carried very far, thank God, are much abated, by a ſenſible cuſtom which has taken place among reputable people, of ſupping at each other's houſes; to ingurgitate a pail of wine, elephant-like, is no longer matter of boaſt; this reformation is a little owing to the ſudden deaths of many ſots, who, when in the flower of their age, could reliſh only ſtrong liquors.

The infinite variety of enjoyments and diverſions in the metropolis, has ſo lamentably corrupted our youth, that moſt of them, whoſe condition will allow of indolence, ſoon grow out of conceit with ſtudy and application, and throw themſelves into the arms of intoxicating voluptuouſneſs. For this we may thank the deficiency of our laws, in not recompenſing thoſe who diſtinguiſh themſelves among their equals by ſuch labours as are uſeful to ſociety; and this is the particular view, with which I wrote for erecting a commiſſion of enquiry, that when employments of the ſuperior claſſes are vacant, they may be filled up by the moſt capable of the inferior claſs, or that honours or penſions may be conferred on the moſt deſerving of each claſs.

Our men of erudition, for fourſcore years paſt, have buſied themſelves more in the curious than the uſeful part of ſciences, and our wits have exhauſted themſelves, only in tinſel decorations of their works, adapting them to the vitiated mode of the general taſte. We are but juſt beginning to ſee, that to pleaſe is not ſufficient, but that writers muſt likewiſe be of greater benefit to their readers than all preceding authors, modern or ancient. They have, indeed, given their cotemporaries a tranſitory delight; and I wiſh thoſe of our times would ſee, that the ſubſtance of their conteſt for preference and excellency does not lie in the brilliancy of wit, or energy of diction, or fertility of invention, but in producing works of ſolid and laſting advantage to the ſtate, not only increaſing the happineſs of the preſent age, but conducing likewiſe to that of poſterity. Here our reaſon, as yet, is very weak.

An Account of an EXCURSION *to the* PEAK *of* TENERIFFE, *one of the* Canary Iſlands, *in the Year* 1791.

THE aſcent to the Peak of Teneriffe has been found to be ſuch a difficult and perilous undertaking, as to be deemed, in a manner, impracticable, at leaſt by the natives of the iſland. Sir George Staunton, and the gentlemen belonging to the embaſſy to China, have very lately failed in it. Before their attempt, however, it was happily accompliſhed by lieutenant Rye, of his majeſty's ſhip Gorgon, and Mr. Burton, who had been ſent to make botanical reſearches in New South Wales. Theſe gentlemen were at Santa Cruz bay, in the iſland of Teneriffe, in April 1791; and the following is the ſubſtance of lieutenant Rye's narrative, as related in a letter to Joſeph Jekyll, eſq. M. P. and F. R. S.

They were firſt to go to Oratava, the capital of the iſland. In their way hence, they were to aſcend to ſome plains, which were ſeven or eight miles diſtant from the Peak; and in theſe plains they were aſſured, many of the mountaineers, who had gone in ſearch of their goats, had periſhed. Notwithſtanding this, they procured two ſtout peaſants to accompany them; who, however, treated as a thing *impoſſible* the reſolution of aſcending to the ſummit of the Peak.

They ſet out from Oratava before daylight; and were ſcarce two miles from the town, when the day broke, and

and exhibited 'steep, rugged precipices, wide yawning gulfs, and huge pendant rocks,' which threatened destruction to the adventurous traveller: no trees were to be found to relieve the eye; and fern, heath, and Spaniſh broom, gave a wild and melancholy aſpect to the ſcene. About ten o'clock they entered thoſe fatal plains, where ſo many of the natives had loſt their lives, and made a ſhort pauſe, in order to contemplate the peak in its ſubliméſt point of view. All around them was covered with lava, interſperſed with huge fragments of rock, which had evidently been hurled from the ſummit of the neighbouring mountain.

One of theſe rocks they meaſured, and found its circumference between ſixty and ſeventy feet. In its form, it was nearly globular; ſome of them had the appearance of chimnies encruſted with ſmoke; others were black and ſhining as jet. Some of the rocks were entire, but moſt of them broken by the fall, and the ſeparated parts projected at a conſiderable diſtance from each other. The portions of rock which had been projected to the greateſt diſtance from the peak, were calculated to be from ſeven to eight miles.

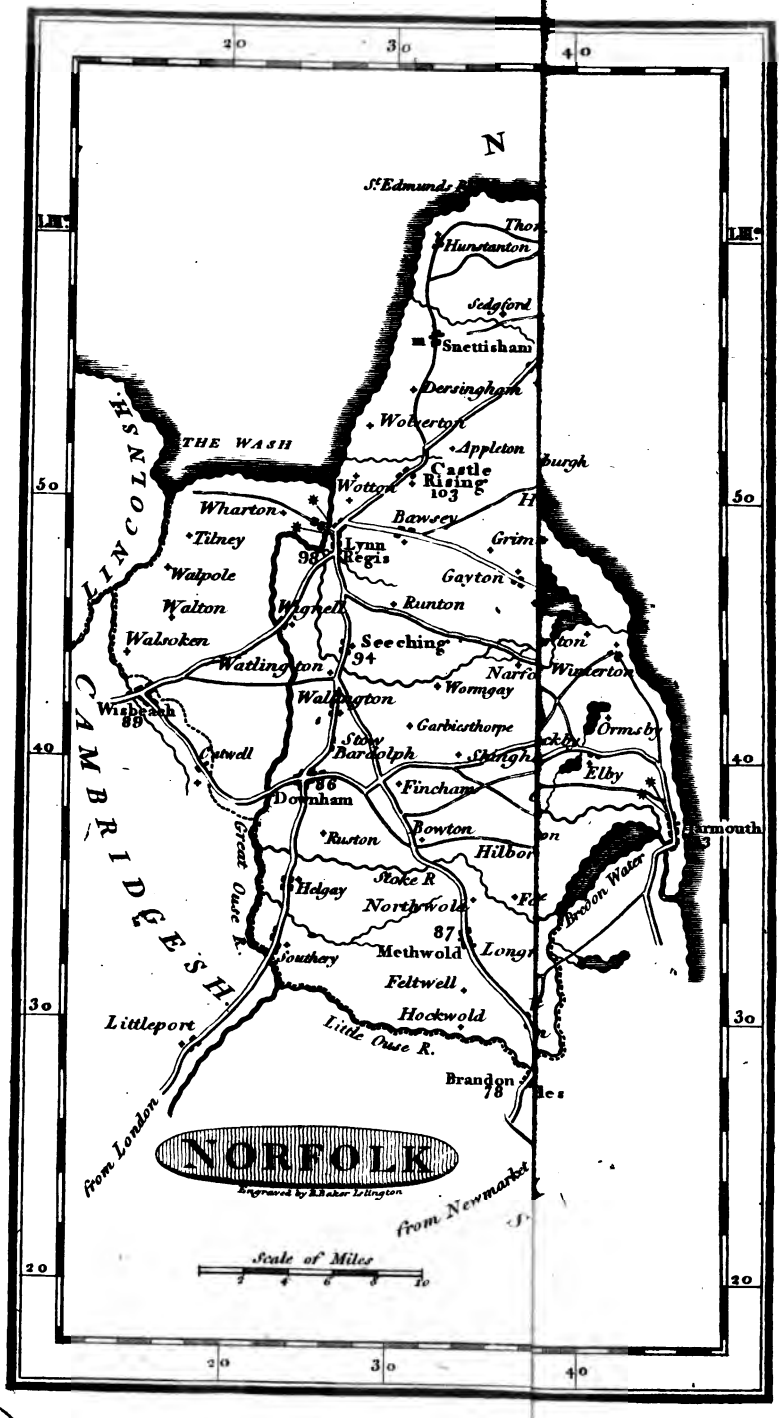
On their firſt entering the plain, they experienced a ſudden tranſition from cold to heat; and a great difficulty in reſpiration, from which laſt inconvenience they procured a temporary relief, by waſhing their mouths with wine, and ſnuffing ſome of the ſame liquid up their noſtrils.

At noon they arrived at the firſt flight of rocks; in approaching theſe, the diviſion, which is about midway, and which is occaſioned by the receſs of the ſecond flight of rocks, is not perceptible. Above theſe is the ſugar loaf, which, with reſpect to its height, when viewed from the plains, greatly deceives the traveller. Before they gained theſe rocks, they found great difficulty in aſcending a ſteep, which was covered with fragments of lava, and large pumice ſtones; theſe were continually giving way beneath their feet. This firſt flight of rocks is called the Engliſhmans' reſting-place. —*Eſtancia de los Ingleſſes.*

They at length arrived at the receſs above mentioned, and were beyond meaſure diſappointed, at perceiving another height of rocks, as difficult of aſcent, as that they had already ſurmounted. They imagined that they had ſimply the ſugar loaf to aſcend, which at a diſtance ſeemed to be no very arduous undertaking. Their ſhoes were now ſo worn, that their feet appeared through them; and every ſtep they took was attended with pain. Their guides only laughed at their diſtreſs, and conducted us to the cavern of ice. Here they ſat down to reflect on their ſituation. They were in the midſt of a precipice formed by large rocks, heaped upon one another, and all of them ſo diſunited, that if they made one falſe ſtep, a fall between them would be inevitable, and the conſequence, the fracture of ſome limb, if not loſs of life.

Their guides now determined to advance no further. They pointed to the top, blew their fingers, drew themſelves into a heap; then ſtretched themſelves along the rock, as if to intimate that inevitable death would be the conſequence of their audacity. 'They next informed us by ſigns,' ſays lieutenant Rye, 'that they would ſtay for us in the cavern; but they did this in ſuch a manner, that we were thoroughly convinced it was their intention here to leave us to our fate. Of this, indeed, the governor and our other friends had forewarned us. We were ſo diſpleaſed at their inſincerity, that I haſtily drew a ſmall hanger, the ſight of which had an inſtant nervous and wonderful effect. Both of them, in a moment ſtarted up, and advanced briſkly before us.

'The wind blew very cold in ſudden ſqualls, yet we often found our great coats an incumbrance, when ſheltered by the interveſting rocks. After a long reſt, we again preſſed forward



NORFOLK
Engraved by B. Baker Islington
Scale of Miles
2 4 6 8 10
N
St. Edmunds
Hunstanton
Sedgford
Snettisham
Dersingham
Wolverton
Appleton
Castle Rising
103
Wotton
THE WASH
LINCOLNSH.
Wharton
Tilney
Walpole
Walton
Walsoken
Lynn Regis
98
Bawsey
Grim
Gayton
Runton
Wignell
Seeching
94
Watlington
Wormgay
Wisbeach
89
Wallington
Garbiesthorpe
Ormsby
Stow Bardolph
Catwell
Elby
86
Downham
Fincham
Bowton
Ruston
Hilbor
Great Ouse R.
Helgay
Stoke R
Northwold
87
Methwold
Southery
Feltwell
Hockwold
Littleport
Little Ouse R.
Brandon
78
Breton Water
CAMBRIDGESH.
from London
from Newmarket

forward with renewed ardour. We ſaw ourſelves not very far from our journey's end, and with no very great ſeeming difficulties to conquer. But no ſooner had we left the rocks, than we ſunk knee deep into lava; a moſt violent and piercing wind aſſailed us, and we were compelled, for ſecurity, to plunge our arms into the lava alſo; in this manner, with many retrograde motions, we perſevered in our endeavours to aſcend. Sometimes, after ſtruggling for many minutes to gain a few feet, we found ourſelves in an inſtant precipitated down with a maſs of rubbiſh, and almoſt ſuffocated with the duſt. In one of theſe efforts, our younger guide fainted away. We immediately approached, and placed him in a ſitting poſture; but we were not a little alarmed to ſee that his head reclined, as if void of all ſenſation, on his ſhoulders; his eyes were fixed and ſunk, his noſtrils diſtended, his tongue ſwollen and hanging out of his mouth; ſo that to our apprehenſion, his moment of diſſolution could not be very far off.'

Luckily, however, they were deceived in their prognoſtications, for he ſoon after recovered ſtrength ſufficient to crawl to one of the rocks, beneath the ſhelter of which they had reſted, and remained there until their return.

In the mean time, they renewed their exertions, and at about half paſt two in the afternoon, entered a fiſſure between the rocks, which ſeemed to have been produced by the deſcent of a torrent of lava. They ſoon after deſcended into the crater, although they were almoſt ſuffocated with the volumes of ſmoke, which burſt forth from various parts of it.

'Our guide,' ſays lieutenant Rye, 'turned over many large calcined ſtones, and pointed out to our attention, different ſpecimens of ſulphur, which appeared in a boiling, bubbling ſtate. In one place, I ſat down to ſelect ſome of the pieces of ſulphur; but a ſudden violent numbneſs ſeized my ſide neareſt the ground. In a moment I ſtarted up, and ruſhed to the ſummit of the peak. The cold was now ſo extremely ſharp and piercing, that it abſolutely drew blood from my pores, but I no longer felt that difficulty of breathing, which from the time of our quitting the rocks, we had experienced, and more particularly while we continued in the crater.'

Having now accompliſhed the object of their wiſhes, and arrived at an altitude, tremendous to the imagination; after ſurveying the immenſe landſcape around them, they returned to Oratava with great exultation, and were received by the inhabitants with every poſſible demonſtration of eſteem.

An Account of NORFOLK: *With a neat and accurate* MAP *of that County.*

NORFOLK is bounded on the north and eaſt, by the German Ocean; on the weſt by Cambridgeſhire, Lincolnſhire, and the Waſh; and on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by Suffolk. It extends about 77 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 45 from north to ſouth. It contains thirty-one hundreds, one city, thirty-two market-towns, and 660 pariſhes; and ſends twelve members to parliament. The face of this county varies leſs than in moſt tracts of equal extent in England. Not one hill of moderate height is to be ſeen in the whole county; yet, in moſt parts, its ſurface is broken into gentle ſwells and depreſſions. At the weſtern extremity, is a conſiderable tract of flat fenny land; and, on the eaſt, a narrow tract of marſhes runs from the ſea, near Yarmouth, to ſome diſtance up the country. Several of the weſtern hundreds, from Thetford northward, are open and bare, conſiſting of extenſive heaths, the ſoil of which is a light ſand or hungry gravel. The reſt of the county, in general, is arable land, varying

in its degrees of fertility. To the north-eaſt the ſoil is a light ſandy loam, remarkable eaſy of tillage. The ſouth-eaſt has a richer and deeper ſoil. The middle and ſouth abound in clay; and various parts yield chalk and marl. The products of the county vary according to the ſoil and ſituation. The lighter arable lands produce barley in great plenty. Wheat is cultivated in the ſtronger ſoils. But turnips are more generally grown here than in any other part of the kingdom, and form the baſis of the Norfolk huſbandry. The peculiar excellence of this culture is, that the ground never lies fallow, as the turnips ſerve to prepare it for corn, beſide fattening great numbers of cattle. Much buckwheat is alſo grown in the light ſoils, and uſed for feeding ſwine and poultry. The fenny parts yield great quantities of butter, which is ſent to London under the name of Cambridge butter. The ſheep are a hardy ſmall breed, much valued for their mutton. Turkeys are reared here to a larger ſize than elſewhere. Rabbits are extremely numerous on the ſandy heaths; and there is likewiſe abundance of game, eſpecially of pheaſants. On the ſeacoaſt, herrings and mackerel are caught in great plenty; and Yarmouth, in particular, is noted for the curing of red herrings. The air of this county is ſharp and piercing, which throws the ſeaſons more backward than in other counties under the ſame latitude; but it is very wholeſome, particularly in the inland parts. The manufactures of Norfolk are worſted, woollens, and ſilks. Its principal rivers are the Great Ouſe, Nen, Little Ouſe, Waveney, Yare, and Bure. Norwich is the capital.

THE GUARDIAN ANGEL.

NUMBER XIII.

ONE of the moſt important conſequences of the promulgation of Chriſtianity was the diſperſion of the general darkneſs and ſuperſtition, by which, at that period, the world was overſpread. The greateſt characters among mankind—men, to whom the learned now look up with veneration, as models of imitation, not only in the fine arts, but in all the excellencies of elocution and of literary compoſition; men, who thought and wrote, not for their own age alone, but for a literary immortality; theſe illuſtrious characters had the moſt unworthy ideas of a Supreme Being, the moſt imperfect conceptions of the nature and extent of the obligations of morality; and the moſt confuſed notions of another ſtate hereafter. Chriſtianity, in all theſe important reſpects, proved to be a ſyſtem of religious belief, worthy of the divine origin which it claimed, and of the glorious views with which it inſpired its votaries. It baniſhed from the face of the whole civilized world the innumerable objects of Pagan adoration, with all their odious rites, and the ſhocking immoralities that reſulted from them. The Supreme Being was no longer conſidered as an omnipotent immortal, endued with human paſſions, actuated by human motives, and equal in profligacy of manners to the moſt abandoned of the human race; but mankind were taught to regard him as a pure and ſpiritual Being, of whoſe nature, indeed, they could form no adequate conception, but of whoſe exiſtence and attributes they might have the moſt ſatisfactory aſſurances. He was repreſented, not only as the Great Creator of the Univerſe, but as the conſtant ruler and preſerver of whatever had exiſtence; a Being, whoſe wiſdom and power were not more conſpicuous in every object that ſurrounded us than his goodneſs and benignity to all his creatures; who invited mankind to conſider him in the endearing cha-

racters of the univerſal parent, friend, and benefactor; who ſent an eſpecial meſſenger to give to all the moſt ſatisfactory aſſurances on points of which even the wiſeſt had very imperfect and obſcure ideas—the aſſurances of his clemency and forgiveneſs on the terms of a ſincere repentance and amendment of life, and the certainty of a future ſtate by the great doctrine of a reſurrection from the dead. Chriſtianity exhibited ſuch doctrines to rational beings as were worthy of their attention and belief. They were no longer taught to deprecate the wrath of a malevolent, or conciliate the favour of a capricious being, by any of the pompous exteriors of devotion—but they were taught to look up to a Being of infinite purity and holineſs, who expected from his creatures the cultivation of all the virtues that could contribute to the welfare of ſociety in general; that would conſtitute, as individuals, their trueſt felicity even in this preſent ſcene, in which he had placed them as in a ſtate of trial and probation, and would finally fit them for the enjoyment hereafter, not of an elyſium of ſenſual indulgence, but of a felicity the moſt ſuitable to the character of an intelligent and immortal ſpirit. Reaſon, thus illuminated by the glorious doctrines of Chriſtianity, has ſince purſued the radiant path pointed out to her, and, in all the varieties of ſucceſſive reſearch and ſpeculation, has found the moſt abundant reaſon to be thankful for that gracious diſpenſation of the Divine Favour, the Goſpel of Jeſus Chriſt, which brought life and immortality to light, and gave to rational and immortal beings, motives of action, and objects of purſuit, worthy of the great ends for which alone they were created.

The Chriſtian Religion thus exhibited the moſt rational and ennobling views of the exiſtence, attributes, and providence of the Supreme Being; of the obligation to piety and virtue, founded in a conformity to the divine will, and ſanctioned by the aſſurance of everlaſting rewards; and, in fine, of the nature of thoſe very rewards, which were repreſented, not like a Mahometan paradiſe, the abode of voluptuous enjoyment, but as conſiſting of pleaſures of which no human image could give the leaſt idea, and of which knowledge and virtue, purified from every degree of error and imperfection, the ſociety of ſpirits of higher degrees in the ſcale of intellectual excellence, and a perpetual manifeſtation of the divine favour, were to form a principal and eſſential part.—This religion, moreover, was calculated to extend its beneficial influences over the moſt extenſive ſtates and communities; not by interfering in their political regulations, but by inculcating a ſenſe of univerſal juſtice, and every where ſpreading the conciliating and endearing ſentiments of peace and good will to all. In the courſe of his providence, however, the Divine Being has been pleaſed, for reaſons inſcrutable by man in the preſent period of his exiſtence, to permit, ſometimes, the moſt excellent of his gifts to be productive of effects, very different from thoſe which they were calculated to produce. Thus we find, that notwithſtanding Chriſtianity inculcates the moſt benevolent doctrines, exhorts all men to be kindly affectioned to each other; to treat each other, in all caſes, as they would be treated themſelves; in a word, to practiſe the virtues of mutual forbearance, and candour, and good will; yet, in proceſs of time, this holy and benevolent religion became the means of inflicting the greateſt calamities whereever it was eſtabliſhed; weak and fallible men arrogantly aſſuming the prerogatives of infallibility; perſecuting, with an unrelenting ſpirit, all who might differ from them in the belief or explanation of ſome of the doctrines of their religion; inflicting all the horrors of impriſonment, confiſcation, exile, lingering tortures, and the moſt cruel deaths; and even extending the terrors of ſpiritual vengeance beyond the grave, dooming with impious preſumption, the unhappy victims of their

fury, to everlasting torments. The pure and spiritual nature of this divine religion was likewise corrupted by the introduction of the most absurd doctrines and the most superstitious practices, till, at last, the darkness of Paganism seemed once more to overspread the earth. The favour of the Supreme Being was sought, not by a life of piety and virtue, but by the exercise of useless austerities, and a rigid adherence to some unmeaning ceremonies; till, at length, all sense of its true nature and excellence seemed to be utterly lost. Instead of being considered as a divine system, by which the mind and conduct of its disciples were to be continually improving; by which the defects and imperfections incidental to their natural tempers were to be reformed; by which certain virtues and excellencies were held out as objects of habitual cultivation, in order to prepare them for the relish and enjoyment of immortal felicity; instead of these, men were now allowed to think, that piety and virtue were no longer essential; that the practice of certain ceremonies was a sufficient substitute for the moral discipline of the heart; that the guilt of the most atrocious crimes might be remitted according to certain rates of commutation; and that a life distinguished by an uninterrupted series of wicked actions, might be fully expiated, by a *pious* disposition of worldly goods when they could no longer be enjoyed *.

Such absurdities and such atrocities might long exist in an ignorant age. But God, who permitted these corruptions, in the inscrutable ways of his providence, was pleased, in due time, to raise up some men of superior discernment, by whose exertions a wonderful, though partial, reformation was at length effected; and Religion, stripped of her meretricious ornaments, appeared in all her native beauty and simplicity. The pure and unadulterated doctrines of the gospel, its intrinsic excellence, its animating motives, its unbounded benevolence, and its *meliorating* influence, are now almost universally understood and taught in those countries in which the reformation was happily introduced. In many large countries, however, such as France, Spain, and Portugal, the religion of the country was so interwoven with the state, that it seemed, with all its monstrous absurdities, to be immoveably fixed. Its effects upon the people at large, in different countries, were various. In Spain and Portugal, where the intercourse with other nations was not so great, where the inquisition reigned in all its terrors, and knowledge, in course, was not so prevalent, the great body of the people (the higher ranks not excepted) were superstitious bigots. On the contrary, in France, where the established superstition was supported by the most despotic government in Europe, the lower orders of the people, indeed, were attached to the ancient faith, but the higher and more enlightened ranks were almost universally unbelievers; rejecting Christianity altogether, as an imposture, or mere engine of state, and some even renouncing all faith in the existence of a Supreme Being, the Creator and Governor of the Universe, with every hope or fear that could be inspired or excited by the belief of a future state. In proportion too, as the nation became more enlightened in all other respects, to a greater degree did infidelity increase; so that, at last, it became a matter of public notoriety, that not the learned

* Thus Offa, king of Mercia, having treacherously invited Ethelbert, prince of the East Angles, to his court, on pretence of marrying him to his daughter, beheaded him, and seized his dominions. Stung by remorse, he had recourse to the easy expiation of murder in those melancholy ages: he founded the monastery of St. Alban's; and such was his *pious* munificence, that Malmesbury, one of the best of the Monkish historians, gravely doubts, whether his *crimes* or his *virtues* preponderated!—Innumerable instances of the same kind may be found in the histories of those times.

laity

laity only, but even many of the ſuperior dignitaries of the church were either deiſts or atheiſts.

A reflecting mind, on a review of theſe circumſtances, will not fail to diſcern, at firſt ſight, the fatal conſequences that reſult, even at this day, not only from the firſt corruptions of Chriſtianity, but from the ſupport which thoſe corruptions have ever received from the civil government of the country. To an enlightened mind in France, it ſeemed ſelf-evident, that the eſtabliſhed ſuperſtition of the country was too abſurd and irrational, to have any pretences to a divine origin that to attribute ſuch an origin to it, was, in reality, to blaſpheme the Deity; that as a uſeful engine of ſtate, Chriſtianity might demand ſupport; but that all wiſe men would regard its firſt propagators as impoſtors, and treat with ſilent contempt all its pretenſions to divinity.

Concluſions of this kind, in that country, and under the circumſtances mentioned, were in ſome meaſure natural. The eſtabliſhed ſuperſtition was unqueſtionably unworthy of the ſmalleſt pretenſions to a divine origin. But the concluſion went too far. The eſtabliſhed ſuperſtition, they argued, is irrational and abſurd, and therefore muſt be falſe; but that eſtabliſhed ſuperſtition, they proceeded, is Chriſtianity; and therefore Chriſtianity is falſe. It did not occur to them, that a religion degraded by every poſſible degree of abſurdity and ſuperſtition might originally have been totally devoid of theſe degrading characteriſtics. They might have reflected, that a doctrine or principle abuſed, is eſſentially different from the principle itſelf. 'With reſpect to Philoſophy, and eſpecially Chemiſtry,' ſays an eminent writer, 'the age of myſtery and deception is now over, and rational and uſeful ſcience has taken place of ſolemn pretenſions, abſurd ſyſtems, and idle tricks. But becauſe we hear now no more of the art of *tranſmuting metals*, or of the *elixir vitæ*, which were the great objects of the chemiſts of the laſt age, do we abandon, therefore, every thing that bears the name of Chemiſtry? Neither, therefore, ought we to diſcard every thing that bears the name of *religion*, becauſe we have exploded ſuperſtition and prieſtcraft.'—In a word, the great error of the French freethinkers has been the want of a ſufficient degree of candour and diſcrimination, which would have led them to inquire into what the doctrines and practices of Chriſtianity really were; into the nature of its claims to a divine origin; into the various degrees of evidence which its advocates have adduced, as well as into the various objections to it urged by its adverſaries; and they would then have found, that ſuch a ſyſtem of doctrines and morals, propounded by ſuch a weight of evidence, ſo pure and excellent in its nature, and enforced by ſuch awful ſanctions, was not be treated with the frothy levity of wit or the ſuperficial flights of ſophiſtry, but was to be inveſtigated with all that ſerioufneſs and attention, which the nature of the ſubject, the moſt ſublime and important imaginable, would demand from every good and conſiderate man.

ON IMPRUDENT FRIENDSHIP.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

IN your Magazine for May, you were pleaſed to admit ſome thoughts on the above ſubject. I now take the liberty of ſending you a few more remarks on the ſame.

The moderns are not more obliged to the ancients for any thing, than for the exalted ideas they have handed down to us on the ſubject of friendſhip. This attachment the ancients appear to have cultivated with an enthuſiaſm, of which we are almoſt ignorant,

ignorant, and with a perſeverance, which we find ſo difficult in common life, that many ſuſpect, with ſome reaſon, that Cicero and others, who have written on the ſubject, were more obliged to their invention than to their experience. The pictures they give, however, are charming; and the rules and cautions they have delivered, are not ſurpaſſed by any modern writers.

To find a real friend is ſaid to be a difficult matter; almoſt every man ſays ſo, but I know not with what juſtice. Friendſhip has not, in my opinion, left the world yet. The cares of life have not prevented its operation in good minds, and there are, I hope, many thouſands, whoſe minds have not been rendered callous by frequent diſappointments and inſtances of ingratitude. I am not of opinion that a real friend is an uncommon thing; but I am well perſuaded that it is not an eaſy thing to *keep a friend*. The poor, and the dependent, are the perſons who moſt want a friend, and who, I am certain, would not have occaſion to complain, if they looked into their own hearts and conduct, and aſked themſelves, whether they really deſerve the exertions of friendſhip. No man has a right to expect friendſhip from others, who is not a *friend to himſelf*. This is the firſt great duty of mankind, to be friends to themſelves; and there are thouſands who are not only hoſtile to themſelves, but who thwart the beſt intentions of others to ſerve them, and yet they are the perſons from whom may be heard the loudeſt complaints, 'that there is no ſuch thing as a *friend* in the world.'

Another cauſe of the ſame complaint, and perhaps the principal cauſe, is the erroneous ideas, many people entertain of friendſhip. To them it is merely an aſſociation of certain habits and diſpoſitions. *Congenial ſouls*, as they call themſelves, meet by accident; they agree in certain likings and diſlikings; and form what they think is friendſhip, but which is merely an alliance between vicious men of ſimilar, or nearly ſimilar diſpoſitions. They are intimate together, they eat together, drink together, purſue licentious pleaſures together, and link cloſely together, while each is ſubſervient to the deſires and pleaſures of the other. When that ceaſes to be the caſe, they quarrel and part, and wonder there is no ſuch thing as true friendſhip. The rich aſſociate with the poorer, until they have ruined them by obliging them to keep pace with them in expences; and then they deſert them. Byſtanders are ſurpriſed, that a friendſhip ſo apparently cloſe, is broken off; and the rich man is called unfriendly and ungrateful, who, in fact, never poſſeſſed any gratitude, nor intended any friendſhip. He only meant to render his companions ſubſervient to his pleaſures, as long as he could, and afterward diſcard them for a new ſet of acquaintances. The young and the thoughtleſs are perpetually forming connexions of this kind, and when dire experience convinces them of the futility of it, inſtead of examining into the principles which connected them together, they break out into general exclamations againſt the world, and it is a maxim with them that 'a true friend is no where to be found.'

Another error into which the young, of a better deſcription, and particularly the fair ſex, frequently fall, is, their carrying into the world thoſe ſentiments of exalted friendſhip, which they have found in the writings of authors of poetical fancy. Diſappointment and chagrin are ſure to follow high expectations from fallible creatures like ourſelves. The Creator ſeems to reſerve, as his own great prerogative, the *perfection of friendſhip*. In us he has tempered it ſo, that we can be but partial aſſiſtants to each other; and for this wiſe purpoſe, that when the help of man fails, we ſhould look up to Him, who is the giver of every good and every *perfect* gift.

An ingenuous young man coming into the world, perfectly ignorant of man-

mankind, unleſs from book knowledge, flatters himſelf that his merit will make many friends, and that friendſhip is a permanent and unchangeable principle. He interprets common appearances into ſerious realities, common civilities into aſſurances of eſteem, and words of courſe into the ſincerity of diſintereſted friendſhip. He is open, honeſt, and frank, and truſts in ſome one whom he conſiders as a friend. He is diſappointed, deceived, and perhaps fatally injured; and from that time, his ideas of mankind acquire a wrong bias. How often are the fair ſex betrayed by their unſuſpecting credulity! Faithful, ſincere, and true themſelves, they liſten with pleaſure to the language that accords with their own feelings. But diſappointed, where they had fixed their affections, betrayed by him in whom they had placed confidence, and ruined by him whom they had choſen for a protector, they ſink under the oppreſſion, or learn to forget their cares, by learning to forget their happineſs and their character.

The friendſhip of this world, where even it appears to moſt advantage, is a ſort of mutual contract between the parties. The poor may be befriended by the rich, but the favour is not altogether gratuitous. Return muſt be made in ſome way or other; and, at leaſt, it is expected that the benefit received ſhall not be abuſed. It is expected that he, who has been aſſiſted through half his troubles, will be able to go through the other half by his own exertions. Where an intimate connexion is formed between friends, each muſt ſacrifice ſomething to the pleaſure of the other. There muſt be, in ſome degree, a reciprocation of kindneſſes, an exchange of mutual eſteem, and a certain portion of reſpect and gratitude from the party moſt obliged. We may confer favours by way of charity, on a man whoſe temper and habits are ſo adverſe to our own, that we can never admit him into our intimacy; but to correſpond with our ideas of friendſhip, we have a right to expect that beſt of all returns, that the obliged party ſhall be a *friend to himſelf*; and if he be ſo, he will not be wanting in that gratitude, which the generous may without vanity expect, and which the proudeſt ſpirit on earth may pay, without deſcending to the meanneſs of flattery, or the debaſement of ſervility.

If we were as ſtrict in ſelecting our friends, as we are careful to examine the characters of thoſe we are to be connected with in matters of trade and intereſt, we ſhould ſeldom have cauſe to complain of falſe friends. Valuable as real friendſhip is, it can only be expected from the really virtuous. The diſſolute, and unprincipled, affect a ſomething among themſelves like friendſhip, but it is merely a mutual agreement on certain points, while they are ſubſervient each to the other's purſuits.

'Make no friendſhip with an angry man,' is a precept of high antiquity; and we may ſay, with equal truth, that it is impoſſible to find, and therefore idle to expect, friendſhip from a wicked man. On the contrary, the good are naturally friendly; it is a part of their character; and benevolence is as natural to them as the exerciſe of virtue itſelf. No man can be a friend to others, who is not a friend to himſelf, and it will not be diſputed, that according to this maxim, the virtuous only have the will and the power to be *friends*. It is obviouſly neceſſary, therefore, to avoid connexions with men whoſe characters are deficient in the amiable qualities of the heart. The profligate, the diſſipated, the ſelfiſh, and the avaricious, never can be ſuſceptible of friendſhip. In the common affairs of life, they may be ſo far bound by the laws as to fulfill their engagements, and may even acquire the name of *honeſt*; but beyond this, we are credulous indeed, if we hope for thoſe exertions of diſintereſted kindneſs which conſtitute true friendſhip. Men, of this deſcription, pay their higheſt attention only where they are moſt likely to profit, and

and are diſtant and inacceſſible to thoſe who have no other claims than the claims of merit. He who pays court to another for the ſake of any probable benefit that may accrue to himſelf, is not to be accounted a friend; for he will only put on the appearance while it ſuits his purpoſe.

There are a ſpecies of men who often complain of the want of friendſhip; men who, having ſome agreeable qualities of addreſs, or perhaps a good voice, or a pleaſant manner of telling a ſtory, are invited into every company. No club or ſociety can be formed, no party of pleaſure can anſwer its name, unleſs they are preſent, to ſing a ſong, or tell a ſtory. This they ſo far miſtake for friendſhip, as to abandon their trades or profeſſions, and dedicate themſelves wholly to ſuch friends. The conſequence is that they are ſoon reduced to the mortifying ſituation of being indebted for a dinner to thoſe whom they can pay only with a ſong; and muſt ſubmit to many mortifications which are not eaſily borne by a proud ſpirit. That ſpirit, however, they muſt break, and become the humble dependents on every looſe, idle ſet of fellows, whoſe object is to be entertained in midnight aſſemblies. If a perſon in this ſituation had conſidered, with Cicero, that virtue alone can conſtitute friendſhip, he would have at once perceived, that he was invited, careſſed, and encouraged, merely becauſe he was a neceſſary appendage to their pleaſures, and that their real ſentiments of him approached nearer to contempt than friendſhip, and would certainly end in contempt, when he became no longer uſeful to them.

If we were attentively to conſider the various bad paſſions of mankind, it would ſoon appear that they are unfriendly to the happineſs of thoſe who are actuated by them, as well as thoſe who depend upon the aſſiſtance of men actuated by them. If a *proud* man profeſſes himſelf our friend, he will naturally expect conceſſions adequate to his exalted notions of himſelf, but which, perhaps, it is impoſſible for us to grant without a violation of the firſt principle of all virtue, *truth*. The *vain* man will likewiſe expect thoſe attentions which can only be paid by him, who is already a maſter of the art of impoſing on the human heart by flattery. With a man who is negligent of his own affairs, and *prodigal* by whim, we ſtand in a more precarious ſituation; we may, in common with many worthleſs perſons, have received favours from him, but his reſources muſt ſoon be at an end; and as he did not diſcriminate between the worthleſs and the meritorious, in the diſpoſal of his favours, he may ſoon put it out of his power to be any longer ſerviceable, and may ſoon want that bread which he has ſo laviſhly beſtowed on others. With a man of *looſe moral principles*, we never can be ſafe; the calls of licentious pleaſure will always be firſt anſwered, and wherever he appears to have beſtowed generouſly, it is rather to be attributed to chance. With a *paſſionate man*, we are ever in a ticklish ſituation, not knowing but that a mere trifle may, in one moment, deſtroy the friendſhip which we imagined was built for ages.

I ſhall conclude this ſubject with a few lines from Collier on Friendſhip. 'Alphonſus the wiſe tells us, that all the acquiſitions and purſuits of men, excepting four, were but baubles, viz. old wood to burn; old wine to drink; old books to read; and old friends to converſe with. To part with a tried friend, without great provocation, is unreaſonable levity. It looks as if a man's ſpirits were turned eager, and his good humour worn out. Such inconſtancy of temper ſeems to be governed by caprice and curioſity; and to turn more upon intereſt than affection. An ambiguous expreſſion, a little chagrin, or a ſtart of paſſion, is by no means enough to take leave upon. The beſt people cannot be always even, awake, and entertaining. No perſon performs at this rate of exactneſs, and therefore

ſhould not require it. The accidents of life, the indiſpoſitions of health, the imperfections of reaſon, ought to be allowed for. A *paradiſaical* temper is not to be expected from *poſtdiluvian* mortals. The bare inequality of the ſeaſons is enough to give one the ſpleen. Nothing but plain malevolence can juſtify diſunion. Malevolence is ſhown either in a ſingle outrage unretracted, or in habitual ill-nature. Such behaviour, I confeſs, is a notorious breach of articles; it ſtrikes at the fundamentals, and makes a correſpondence impracticable. When the engagement proves thus unlucky, the way is to draw off by degrees, and not to come to an open rupture. Let the acquaintance be decently buried; and the flame rather go out, than be ſmothered. For, as Cato well obſerves (though in the phraſe of a *taylor*) friendſhip ought not to be *unript*, but *unſtitched*.'

I am, ſir, &c.

CAIUS.

A Curious Account of the INHABITANTS *of* KUBESHA, *in the Country of the* LESGUIS TARTARS, *on the Weſt Coaſt of the* Caſpian Sea.

THE remarkable town of Kubeſha is ſituated near the river Koiſu, in the country of the Leſguis. Colonel Gaeber, who wrote an account of theſe countries in 1728, gives the following deſcription of this very curious place: 'Kubeſha is a large, ſtrong town, ſituated on a hill, between high mountains. Its inhabitants call themſelves Franki (Franks, a name common in the Eaſt to all Europeans) and relate, that their anceſtors were brought hither by ſome accident, the particulars of which are now forgotten. The common conjecture is, that they were caſt away upon the coaſt; but thoſe who pretend to be better verſed in their hiſtory, tell the ſtory this way: The Greeks and the Genoeſe, ſay they, carried on, during ſeveral centuries, a conſiderable trade, not only on the Black Sea, but on the Caſpian, and were certainly acquainted with the mines contained in theſe mountains, from which they drew, by their trade with the inhabitants, great quantities of ſilver, copper, and other metals. In order to work theſe upon the ſpot, they ſent hither a number of workmen, to eſtabliſh manufactures and inſtruct the inhabitants. The ſubſequent invaſions of the Arabs, Turks, and Monguls, during which the mines were filled up, and the manufactures abandoned, prevented the ſtrangers from effecting their return; ſo that they continued here, and erected themſelves into a republic. What renders this account the more probable is, that they are ſtill excellent artiſts, and make very good fire-arms, as well rifled as plain; ſabres, coats of mail, and ſeveral articles in gold and ſilver, for exportation. They have, likewiſe, for their own defence, ſmall copper cannons, of three pounds calibre, caſt by themſelves. They coin Turkiſh and Perſian ſilver money, and even rubles, which readily paſs current, becauſe they are of the full weight and value. In their vallies, they have paſture and arable lands as well as gardens; but they purchaſe the greater part of their corn, truſting chiefly for ſupport to the ſale of their manufactures, which are much admired in Turkey, Perſia, and the Crimea. They are generally in good circumſtances, are a quiet, inoffenſive people, but high-ſpirited and independent. Their town is conſidered as a neutral ſpot, where the neighbouring princes can depoſit their treaſures with ſafety. They elect yearly twelve magiſtrates, to whom they pay the moſt unlimited obedience; and as all the inhabitants are on a footing of the moſt perfect equality, each individual is ſure to have, in his turn, a ſhare in the government. In the year 1725, their magiſtrates, as well as the Uſmei, acknowledged

knowledged the ſovereignty of Ruſſia, but without paying any tribute.'

Major Rennell, in his memoir of a map of the countries comprehended between the Black Sea and the Caſpian, has quoted this account as very conſiſtent and credible. The Leſguis, in whoſe country this town is ſituated, are a nation of Tartars; and their country is indifferently called by the Georgians, Leſguiſtan or Dagheſtan. It is bounded on the S. and E. by Perſia and the Caſpian; on the S. W. and W. by Georgia, the Oſſi, and Kiſti; and on the N. by the Kiſti and Tartar tribes. It is divided into a variety of diſtricts, generally independent, and governed by chiefs elected by the people. To one of theſe diſtricts, ſubject to the Uſmei, or khan of the Caitaks, colonel Gaeber attributes the following ſingular cuſtom: 'Whenever the Uſmei has a ſon, he is carried round from village to village, and alternately ſuckled by every woman who has a child at her breaſt till he is weaned. This cuſtom, by eſtabliſhing a kind of brotherhood between the prince and his ſubjects, ſingularly endears them to each other.'—The Leſguis are probably deſcended from the tribes of mountaineers, known to ancient geographers under the name of Leſgæ or Ligyes. The ſtrength of their country, which is a region of mountains, whoſe paſſes are known only to themſelves, has probably, at all times, ſecured them from foreign invaſion. They ſubſiſt by raiſing cattle, and by predatory expeditions into the countries of their more wealthy neighbours. During the troubles in Perſia, toward the beginning of this century, they repeatedly ſacked the towns of Shamachie and Ardebil, and ravaged the neighbouring diſtricts; and the preſent wretched ſtate of Georgia and part of Armenia, is owing to the frequency of their incurſions. In their perſons and dreſs, and general habits of life, as far as theſe are known to us, they greatly reſemble the Circaſſians.

PROCEEDINGS *of the Third* SESSION *of the Seventeenth Parliament of* Great Britain, *continued from Page* 62.

On Monday June 17, in the houſe of commons, an addreſs was voted to his majeſty, that he would be pleaſed to order certain buildings in the court of exchequer to be taken down in the enſuing receſs, for the purpoſe of rendering the acceſs to the houſe from New Palace-yard more commodious and agreeable.

Mr. ſecretary Dundas moved for leave to bring in a bill for the better ordering of the militia in that part of Great Britain called Scotland. Leave was given.

Sir W. Lewes moved an addreſs to his majeſty, praying that he would be pleaſed to order a monument, with a ſuitable inſcription thereon, to be erected in the cathedral of St. Paul, to the memory of that gallant officer, the late lord Rodney, as a teſtimony of the national gratitude for his great and ſignal ſervices. This motion was agreed to by the houſe *nem. con.*

It was ordered, on the motion of Mr. Windham, that an addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, that he would be pleaſed to order the ſum of 2500l. to be paid to Mr. Thomas Mudge, watchmaker, on his diſcovering the principles of his new invented time-keeper to any perſons whom his majeſty ſhall pleaſe to appoint.

Mr. Fox then roſe, to call the attention of the houſe to the ſubject of the preſent war. He hoped no perſon would be ſo uncandid as to ſuppoſe that if he waved the conſideration of theſe points which he had urged upon former occaſions, as to the juſtice and policy of the war, that therefore it was to be taken for a proof that he had changed his opinion, and that therefore he remained ſilent in his own defence, or that he had changed his opinion upon the meaſures which brought about this unhappy war. He ſhould, for the ſake of argument only, admit that it was a juſt, prudent, and neceſſary war. He had always underſtood that the grounds of the war, on our part, were principally theſe. Firſt, the particular alliance we had with the Dutch, attacked as they were by the French.—Secondly, Not only this alliance, which, in point of good faith, called

called upon us to act for the ſafety of our alliance, and of our own honour, but alſo on account of the intereſt we ourſelves had in the iſſue. There was another ground ſtated, and that might be divided into parts; he meant that which was ſtated upon the general footing of the aggrandizement of France, and the effect and operation of the ſpirit of their councils.—His object now was to ſhew, that upon neither of theſe grounds could the preſent war be continued. He might perhaps be told, that we had been at conſiderable expence in this war already, and that we had met with conſiderable ſucceſs in the proſecution of it; and therefore, under ſuch circumſtances, it was fair for us to ſay, that we were entitled to indemnity for the expences we had ſuſtained, and ſecurity againſt future danger; or that, if we had not, the war ſhould be followed up with vigour. That principle, as far as it regarded the ſituation of our allies, he did by no means deny; but the continuation of the preſent war for indemnity to ourſelves, and indemnity only, after the real object of the war was gained, could be maintained only upon prudential conſiderations: now taking it as a matter of prudence, he ſhould aſk what was it that we propoſed to gain?

In the firſt place, whatever indignation the people of this country might feel with regard to ſome of the proceedings on the part of France, (pretty general the indignation was felt, and by none more than by himſelf) yet he believed it was not in the contemplation of the people of this country, at the commencement of the war, to inſiſt on giving France its old abſolute monarchy, or, indeed, any form of government whatever. It was urged, that the French had declared war againſt us. But whenever we had no ground for ſuſpecting that France had any farther means of acting hoſtilely againſt us, or any of our allies, we could not juſtify to ourſelves the continuance of the war ſolely upon the ground that France had declared war againſt us. When we had put an end to the aggreſſion, then was the time to put an end to the war ſo commenced. Both our allies, the Dutch, and ourſelves, were now perfectly ſafe from the attacks of France. But we had attacked France, becauſe our allies were attacked by her, and becauſe we ſaw in the character and ſpirit of her councils, views of her own aggrandizement.—Was this ſpirit, and were theſe views peculiar to France?—Had we not felt the ſame ſpirit in other powers of Europe? Had not all parties concurred in deteſting the conduct of the preſent combined powers with regard to Poland?—Was not that ſcene ſufficiently infamous?—Did it not exhibit ſufficient tyranny, oppreſſion, and breach of faith? Could we conceal from ourſelves the conduct of Ruſſia and Pruſſia upon that ſubject? Were we to partake of the infamy of that tranſaction? God forbid we ſhould. Let us aſk, with all the indignation we naturally had againſt the conduct of France on many points, whether that of the courts of Berlin and Peterſburgh, in their invaſion of Poland, and afterward the partition of it, was not equal in infamy to any thing that France was ever guilty of?—But it ſeems, nothing was to be alarming now but French principles. Could gentlemen be happy in ſeeing ſuch a mode as had been adopted by thoſe powers to reſiſt French principles. Was this conduct leſs dangerous to Europe than that of the French. He knew many reaſons why it was more dangerous. One was, that all the affairs of ſuch a combination of deſpots were carried on with more ſecrecy, than in the wild ſtate of a democracy was poſſible at any time. And here he wiſhed to know, Whether they thought, that, even if the French had been able to retain all they took, Flanders and Brabant, they were more dangerous to the general proſperity of Europe than the allied powers would be in conſequence of the partition of Poland? It might be aſked, whether, when we had ſpent millions in the proſecution of the war, and conſidering the ſituation we are in at the preſent moment, and that the convulſion and diſtraction of the French make it improbable they will be able to proceed without deſtruction—ſhall we make peace? He would anſwer—yes. He did not think but that ſome indemnity might even now be obtained from our arms in the Weſt Indies? But he called for peace as a matter of prudence on our part, under all the circumſtances by which we were ſurrounded; and here he came to the melancholy part of the argument; for although no views of commerce could juſtify the continuance of any war, after the aggreſſion that provoked it was at an end, yet views of commerce might haſten us to conclude a peace as ſoon as we had obtained the object for which the war began; in all caſes where our honour was not at ſtake, even although the terms were not ſuch as we might originally have expected. —Here he expatiated on the deplorable miſchiefs the war had occaſioned to the commerce and manufactures of this country. Let us not aſk, he ſaid, what indemnity

we ought to have of France; but what has France in her power to beſtow? What has Europe to beſtow upon Great-Britain that will equal the ſhock that may be given to her commerce by continuing the preſent war? There were many who maintained, that the preſent war was not the cauſe of the preſent commercial embarraſſments of this country.—He did not agree with thoſe opinions. But ſuppoſing them to be right, he would then ſay, that whatever was the cauſe of our diſtreſſes in that reſpect, we could not look with any rational hope of amending our condition, without the advantages of peace. What was it we were now fighting for? For our religion? It was not attacked. For our conſtitution? It was perfectly ſecure?—But if this queſtion had been aſked—whether were we to treat with France in its preſent ſtate? He anſwered—yes. With him, or them, be he or they what they will, you ought, and ultimately you muſt treat, with thoſe who have the government in their hands: if the contrary be true, if France were to be at peace only, on a plan of our own, as to a form of government, we muſt be at war with them until we beat them; we ſhould, in that caſe, fight with them until they had a legally eſtabliſhed government, And what was there in their proceedings that made us look for an eſtabliſhed government among them? What reaſon had we to expect that event to take place?—When and how were we to enforce it?—Let them ſuffer the penalties of their own injuſtice: let them ſuffer the miſeries ariſing from their own confuſion. Why were the people of England to ſuffer becauſe the people of France were unjuſt? Why was every man in England to be a ſufferer, becauſe the people of France were in confuſion, and that too when France had no power to annoy us, and when we could conclude peace with ſafety to ourſelves and to our allies? If we were determined to ſay, we ſhould not make peace with the French, until they have a form of government, which we ſhall approve; that would amount to ſaying, we would dictate to them a form of government; and if that had been avowed at the beginning to that houſe, he was confident they would not have adopted the war at all; and although it was his majeſty's undoubted prerogative to commence it, yet the houſe would have refuſed to pledge itſelf for ſupplies for carrying it on. If he were aſked, with whom could we have ſigned a treaty of peace ſome time ago? He would anſwer with M. Le Brun. All thoſe who had ſupported this war had agreed that peace, if it could be obtained, was a deſirable object; and in all that had been ſaid or done by the national convention, and in the city of Paris, demonſtrated this; it had ever been the opinion of that people, that a peace with this country was the moſt deſirable of all the objects for them to obtain. He owned, for his part, the neceſſity of this country's being at peace with the French, and all the people of England would ſee it in the ſame light very ſoon. It was a new thing to hear, that to be at peace with a people, we muſt be pleaſed firſt with the form of their government. He knew it was not wiſe to treat, in general, with thoſe whoſe power was unſettled. This applied to treaties of alliance with much force; but, when peace was the object, this doctrine was not to govern, as otherwiſe we might be at war for ever.

He muſt ſay, that every meaſure ſhould now be taken to put an end to this ruinous war; and that the deſire on the part of the public to bring this to an immediate termination, was almoſt the univerſal deſire of the people of this country. Whether it was the opinion of that houſe or not, he could not tell; but he believed, that his opinion, upon this occaſion, was almoſt, without exception, the opinion of the public. A report had gone abroad, that ſome of the moſt efficient miniſters of the crown were friends to peace, who felt the diſtreſs of this country, and the abſurdity of continuing the war; and ſince he had conſidered of making the motion, with which he ſhould have the honour of concluding his addreſs to the houſe, ſome perſons told him, that he was ſtrengthened in his opinion by perſons high in his majeſty's council. But, however this were, he did not wiſh for the ſanction of this or that man. Peace was the object for which he himſelf ardently ſighed, becauſe he thought it eſſential to the ſalvation and the happineſs of the country. Alluding then to the American war, as an awful example to the people of this country, and hoping we were not doomed to endure ſuch another calamity, he concluded by moving,

'That an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, to lay before his majeſty, the humble repreſentation of his faithful commons on the preſent awful and momentous criſis; a duty which they feel themſelves the more eſpecially called upon to perform at this juncture, as a long and eventful period may probably elapſe before his majeſty can again have an opportunity of collecting, through their repreſentatives, the real ſentiments and wiſhes of his people.

'In the name of the people of England, his majeſty's faithful commons are bound to declare, that they concurred in the meaſures neceſſary to carry on the preſent war, for the objects of defence and ſecurity, and for thoſe objects only.

'That any plan of aggrandizement founded on the preſent diſtreſſed ſituation of France, much leſs any purpoſe of eſtabliſhing among the French people, any particular form of government, never would have had their concurrence or ſupport.

'In expreſſing theſe their ſentiments and opinions on entering into the preſent war, his majeſty's faithful commons are ſenſible that they are only repeating thoſe benevolent declarations, which policy, and a careful attention to the real intereſts of the Britiſh nation, induced his majeſty to uſe in his moſt gracious ſpeech from the throne at the beginning of the preſent ſeſſion of parliament, and in repeated meſſages to this houſe.

'To repreſent to his majeſty, that though his faithful commons have the moſt perfect reliance on his majeſty's ſacred word and promiſe, ſolemnly pledged to this country and to Europe, not to interfere in the internal affairs of France, or to enter into the views and projects of other powers, who, in the preſent war, may be actuated by motives far different from thoſe which govern the conduct of his majeſty; yet they feel it to be their indiſpenſable duty to call his majeſty's moſt ſerious attention to ſome of the circumſtances which have occurred ſince the commencement of the preſent unfortunate conteſt.

'The French arms, which, after a ſucceſsful invaſion of Brabant, had threatened the ſecurity of his majeſty's allies the ſtates-general, have ſince been confined within their own territory, and are now occupied in defence of their frontier towns againſt the united forces of his majeſty and his allies. The danger apprehended from the former conqueſts and aggrandizement of the French nation, appears, therefore, to be no longer a ſubject of juſt uneaſineſs and alarm.

'Some of the powers engaged in the confederacy againſt France, have, on the other hand, openly avowed, and ſucceſsfully executed, plans of dominion and conqueſt, not leſs formidable to the general liberties of Europe. The rapacious and faithleſs diſmemberment of the unhappy kingdom of Poland, without having produced, as it appears to this houſe, any remonſtrance from his majeſty's miniſters, has exhibited in his majeſty's faithful commons, the higheſt indignation at ſo daring an outrage on the rights of independent nations, and the keeneſt ſolicitude to reſcue the honour of the Britiſh government from the ſuſpicion of having concurred or acquieſced in meaſures ſo odious in their principle, and ſo dangerous in their example to the peace and happineſs of mankind.

'The ſevere calamities which, ſince the commencement of the preſent war, this nation has already experienced; the ſhock given to commercial credit, and the alarming conſequences which the failure of the mercantile and manufacturing intereſt threatens to the public revenue, and to the general proſperity of the country, cannot have failed to attract his majeſty's attention, and to excite in his benevolent mind a ſincere deſire to relieve his ſubjects from diſtreſſes of which they cannot hope for a termination but in the ſpeedy reeſtabliſhment of peace.

'His majeſty's faithful commons make it therefore their moſt earneſt and ſolemn requeſt, that his majeſty, taking into his conſideration, all the above circumſtances, will not fail to employ the earlieſt meaſures for procuring peace on ſuch terms as are conſiſtent with the profeſſed objects of the war, and with that good faith, ſtrict juſtice, and liberal and enlightened policy, which have hitherto ſo peculiarly diſtinguiſhed the Britiſh nation.'

Mr. Windham ſaid, that ſo far as the objects of the war regarded Holland and Flanders, he had no fault to find with the fairneſs of his right hon. friend's ſtatement; but with reſpect to the alleged diſavowal of any interference as to the internal government of France, theſe appeared to him a manifeſt error. He was ready to admit that there had been a diſavowal of any intention on our part, to interfere, for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing in France, any particular form of government, monarchical, democratic or deſpotic; but he conceived it to have been an avowed purpoſe of the war, to endeavour to bring about the eſtabliſhment of ſuch a government in that country, as we might with ſafety treat with. We were to proſecute the war, till we could make peace with ſafety.—He had yet to learn any principle in reaſon, by which a country could be called upon at the beginning of a war, to ſtate definitely what are the preciſe objects of the war, or what the preciſe ſituation in which it ought to deſiſt from that war. To do ſo, would be impoſſible, becauſe much muſt frequently depend, in point of

pru-

prudence in that reſpect, upon contingencies during the ſubſiſtence of the war.—His right hon. friend, however, having firſt aſſumed what were the avowed objects of the war, and alſo that theſe objects are attainable; he had, on all theſe aſſumptions grounded this concluſion, that we are now only at war for *indemnification*; but, denying the premiſes, he could not poſſibly join in the concluſion. In this, or in any other war, he was ready to admit, that the ſtate of the country was undoubtedly one conſideration, but he could, by no means, agree in the opinion, that the preſent ſtate of this country, with reſpect to commercial credit particularly, had been occaſioned by the war; he certainly thought it had proceeded from cauſes diſtinct from the war. He would next aſk, how did his right hon. friend make out his poſition, that the objects of the war are now attainable by negotiation? Were that, indeed, admitted, no doubt could remain on the ſubject: he muſt, however, deny, that the objects of the war can, in any ſhape, be ſaid to be attained; for, without ſecurity, they cannot poſſibly be attained. Being engaged in war, the object of this country muſt neceſſarily be, not merely to recover Holland, or to reſcue Flanders, but alſo to guard them againſt ſimilar dangers in future.—His right hon. friend had ſpoke of *alarms*, with ſome degree of ridicule: in his mind, there was a degree of confidence equally dangerous, if not much more ſo.—Differing, therefore, from his right hon. friend, both as to the *miſchief* that is now in the world, and, as to the danger of its ſpreading over the world, it was impoſſible for him to agree, that the preſent diſtracted ſtate of France furniſhed any ſecurity on which this country either could or ought to place reliance. With reſpect to what had been ſaid of clamours for peace, perhaps ſome perſons might be ready to join in ſuch clamours, whoſe real objects were very different from their pretence, and who were, by no means friendly to the conſtitution of this country: but, be their motives what they may, he did not like to appeal to ſimple illiterate perſons, in great queſtions of ſtate; not, from any want of conſideration with reſpect to ſuch perſons, but becauſe they are really incapable of forming a juſt opinion upon ſuch queſtions, which are queſtions of judgment; particularly, with regard to war, however clamorous ſuch people may be, from their diſtreſſes, this ought to have no weight in deciding as to the merits of the war. Nor are ſuch perſons liable to ſuffer from the effects of war only: manufacturers, for inſtance, are liable to be thrown out of employment by the caprice of faſhion. Beſides, ſuch people would prefer their own immediate intereſt to the future good either of this country or of the world. Againſt ſuch impreſſions, he hoped that houſe would be guarded, and that they would act upon large views, for the intereſt of this country, and of the reſt of Europe. For his part, feeling that we have now every thing at ſtake; that, ſo far from being unſucceſsful in the proſecution of the war, we have hitherto been proſperous; and that thoſe depredations with which our trade was at firſt threatened, have paſſed away; feeling alſo the difficulty of getting a combination of powers ſufficient to attain the ſecurity aimed at, and the almoſt impoſſibility of again forming ſuch combination, if once diſſolved, he muſt conſider an attempt, on our part, to make peace, under the preſent circumſtances, as next to madneſs.

[To be continued.]

LONDON GAZETTES EXTRAORDINARY.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary. Monday, July 29.

Whitehall, July 29.

YEſterday morning, a meſſenger arrived at the office of the right hon. lord Grenville, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, with diſpatches from the earl of Yarmouth, dated at the camp before Mayence, July 23, 1793, containing an account of the ſurrender of that city to his Pruſſian majeſty on the preceding day, with the articles of capitulation, of which the following is a tranſlation.

Articles of Capitulation offered by Brigadier-general D'Oyré, Commander in Chief at Mayence, Caſſel, and the Places which are dependent upon them.

ART. I. The French army ſhall deliver up to his majeſty the king of Pruſſia, the city of Mayence and Caſſel, together with their fortifications and all the poſts which belong to them; in their preſent ſtate; alſo the artillery, both French and foreign,

foreign, warlike ſtores and proviſions, thoſe matters only excepted, which are mentioned in the following article.—Anſwer. Accepted.

II. The garriſon ſhall march out with all the honours of war, carrying away their arms, baggage, and other effects, the private property of the individuals of the garriſons.—Anſ. Granted, on condition that the garriſon ſhall not ſerve, during the ſpace of a year, againſt the armies of the allied powers; and that if they carry away any covered waggons, his Pruſſian majeſty reſerves the right of ſearching them, in caſe he ſhould think proper.

III. The garriſon ſhall be allowed to carry away with them their field-pieces with their carriages.—Anſ. Refuſed.

IV. The general officers, private perſons, the commiſſaries of war, all the directors, and thoſe employed under them, in the different departments of the army, and, in general, all individuals, French ſubjects, belonging to the garriſon, ſhall carry away their horſes, carriages, and effects.—Anſ. Granted.

V. The garriſon ſhall remain in the place forty-eight hours after the ſignature of the preſent capitulation, and, if that time ſhould not be ſufficient for the laſt diviſions, a further delay of twenty-four hours ſhall be granted to them.—Anſ. Granted.

VI. The commanders in chief ſhall be permitted to ſend one or more agents, furniſhed with paſſports by his Pruſſian majeſty, to endeavour to procure the money neceſſary for the payment of the debts contracted by the army; and the French garriſon deſires, that, until the ſaid debts ſhall be diſcharged, or until an arrangement ſhall be made for their liquidation, permiſſion may be granted them to leave hoſtages, who may rely on his majeſty's protection.—Anſ. Granted.

VII. The garriſon of Mayence and its dependencies, immediately after their evacuation, ſhall begin their march toward France in ſeveral columns, and ſhall ſhall ſet out at different times. Each column ſhall be furniſhed with a Pruſſian eſcort for their ſafety to the frontier. General D'Ovré ſhall have the liberty of ſending in advance to ſtaff officers and the commiſſaries of war, in order to provide for the ſubſiſtence and accommodation of the French troops.—Anſ. Granted.

VIII. In caſe the horſes and carriages belonging to the French army ſhould not be ſufficient for the tranſport of the camp equipage and other effects mentioned in the preceding articles, they ſhall be furniſhed with others in the country, upon paying for them.—Anſ. Granted.

IX. As the removal of the ſick, and eſpecially of the wounded, cannot be done by land carriage without endangering their lives, a ſufficient number of boats ſhall be furniſhed, at the expence of the French nation, for conveying them by water to Thionville and Metz, taking the neceſſary precautions for the ſubſiſtence of thoſe honourable victims of the war.—Anſ. Granted.

X. Until the entire evacuation of the French army, none of the inhabitants who are now out of Mayence, ſhall be permitted to return thither.—Anſ. Granted.

XI. Immediately after the ſignature of the preſent capitulation the troops of the beſieging army may take poſſeſſion of the following poſts, viz. Fort Charles, Fort Welſch, Fort Eliſabeth, Fort St. Philip, the Double Tenail, Fort Linfenberg, Fort Hauptſtein, Fort Mars, the iſland of St. Peter, and the two gates of Caſſel leading to Francfort and to Wiſbaden.

They may moreover occupy, conjointly with the French troops, the gate of Newthor, and the extremity of the bridge of the Rhine adjacent to the right bank of that river.—Anſ. Accepted.

XII. Colonel Douay, director of the arſenal, lieutenant-colonel Riboiſſieri, ſub-director, and lieutenant-colonel Varine, chief officer of engineers, ſhall deliver over, with as little delay as poſſible, to the principal officers of artillery and engineers of the Pruſſian army, the arms, ammunition, plans, &c. relative to the duties with which they ſhall be reſpectively charged.—Anſ. Accepted.

XIII. A commiſſary at war ſhall in like manner be appointed to receive the magazines and effects which they contain.—Anſ. Accepted.

XIV. Additional article. The deſerters from the combined armies ſhall be ſtrictly delivered up.

Done at Marienborn, the 22d of July 1793.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary. Thurſday, Auguſt 1.

Whitehall, July 31. Captain Calvert, of the Coldſtream regiment of guards, aide-de-camp to his royal highneſs the duke of York, arrived this morning with diſpatches from colonel ſir James Murray, bart.

bart. adjutant general to the forces under his royal highneſs' command, to the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, of which the following are copies.

Eſtreux, July 26, 1793.

Sir,

I am happy to have the honour of informing you, that laſt night not only the attacks of the covered way of the horn-work, and of the advanced Flêche by St. Sauve, were attended with ſucceſs, but that poſſeſſion has been obtained of the horn-work itſelf, in which the troops are now completely eſtabliſhed.

Three attacks were formed; one upon the ſaliant angle of the ravelin of the horn-work, one upon the ſaliant angle of the half baſtion upon the right, and one upon the Flêche. Nine hundred men were deſtined for each attack. In each of the two firſt, an advanced guard was formed of 150 men, followed by 300, with the neceſſary workmen and miners, ſupported by the reſt of the column. The troops employed on the attack upon the right were divided into three parts, one of which turned the Flêche to the right, another to the left, and the third advanced in front. The column deſtined for the attack of the ſaliant angle of the ravelin was compoſed of Britiſh, Hanoverians, and Heſſian troops, the other two of Auſtrians. One hundred and fifty men of the brigade of guards, under the command of colonel Leigh, formed the advanced party. They were followed by 150 men of the brigade of the line, with an equal number of Hanoverians, commanded by lieutenant-colonel Doyle; 150 Hanoverians and 300 Heſſians compoſed the reſt of the column. Colonel Langerke of the Heſſians, and lieutenant-colonel Offney of the Hanoverians, commanded theſe troops. A detachment of the company of artificers, under captain Sutherland, accompanied this column, and performed the duty allotted to them with great activity and reſolution. This attack was commanded by major-general Abercromby. The Auſtrian lieutenant general Erbach commanded the whole.

The ſpringing of the globes of compreſſion was the ſignal for the attack. Of theſe there were three; one toward the ſaliant angle of the ravelin; one toward that of the half baſtion upon the right; and one between theſe two. They were ſprung at ſhort intervals from one another; the firſt at nine o'clock. The two columns upon the left advanced with the utmoſt alacrity, ruſhing out from the ſap, which had been carried the preceding nights to within a very ſmall diſtance of the creſt of the Glacis. The enemy were almoſt inſtantaneouſly driven from the covered way. They abandoned the horn-work, and, as it afterward appeared, all the out-works of the place. The miners deſcended into the ditch, and got poſſeſſion of thoſe of the enemy's mines, which had eſcaped the effects of the globes of compreſſion. Theſe were found loaded, and ſeveral of the miners were taken. One fougaſs was ſprung, but happily without occaſioning any loſs. The horn-work was entered by the gorge. The probability of this had been foreſeen; but it was reckoned uſeleſs to attempt a lodgment, for want of proper communication; and indeed nearly impoſſible to effect it. The original orders given for this caſe were, therefore, to ſpike the guns and retire. A paſſage being however diſcovered, which went under ground from the ditch into the work, and no enemy appearing in the counter-garde, which immediately overlooks it, to interrupt the workmen, it was determined by his royal highneſs to take the advantage of the moment. The lodgment was made before day-light; and the troops are now, I apprehend, in perfect ſecurity. This is of the greater conſequence, as the horn-work is found to be ſtrongly mined, and it muſt, therefore, in the common line of operations, have required a conſiderable time, and occaſioned loſs of men in courſe, to have gained poſſeſſion of it. Meaſures are taking, with all poſſible expedition, to profit of this ſucceſs, by erecting a battery, for the purpoſe of battering in breach the counter-garde, which is between the horn-work and the body of the place.

His royal highneſs has expreſſed himſelf to be highly pleaſed with the gallantry and good conduct of major-general Abercromby, colonel Leigh, and lieutenant-colonel Doyle, as well as with that which was ſhewn by colonel Langerke and lieutenant-colonel Offney. The conduct of the other officers, and that of the troops in general, as well in regard to their diſcipline and the order which they preſerved, as to the gallantry of their behaviour, merits every commendation. Lieutenant-colonel count Dietrickſtein, captains count Orlandini and Thiangie, of the Auſtrian corps of engineers, were attached to the left column; and their conduct is ſpoken

of

of by major-general Abercromby in terms of the ſtrongeſt approbation.

The attack of the flêche upon the right was carried on with equal vigour and ſucceſs: ſeveral of the enemy were killed, and twelve taken in the work. Small parties made their way into the main ditch.

The croatz, upon the ſide of Mont Anzin and St. Sauve, carried ſeveral detached works, killed about fifty of the enemy, and took thirty priſoners.

Major De Drieberg, commandant of the ſecond battalion of Hanoverian grenadiers, advanced with a detachment from Briquet to the creſt of the glacis upon that ſide, where he remained till day-break, kept up a fire upon the works, and made a uſeful diverſion.

The total loſs of the combined troops upon this important occaſion does not exceed 150 men and officers killed and wounded. I incloſe the return of the Britiſh. The Hanoverians had one man killed and ſix wounded; the Heſſians none. His royal highneſs regrets the loſs of a brave officer in enſign Follemache, who was killed by a ſhell in the third parallel.

I incloſe the copies of the ſummons ſent by his royal highneſs this morning to the town, with the letters which have afterward paſſed. Theſe give a reaſonable ground for hope, that the ſiege will not be of much longer continuance.

SUMMONS to the COMMANDER.

The wiſh to prevent, as much as poſſible, irremediable misfortunes was the motive of the propoſal I made to you on the 14th of June. Either you thought yourſelf able effectually to reſiſt our attacks, or flattered yourſelf with the hopes of aſſiſtance, and did not liſten to it. But now that both theſe errors are deſtroyed, I offer you, from the ſame motives of humanity, a capitulation, which will ſave your honour; and what remains of their property, to the unfortunate victims of your obſtinacy. Are you determined to force us, by the neceſſity of war, completely to deſtroy a beautiful town, or will you preſerve what has hitherto eſcaped?

Lamenting the dreadful conſequences of an obſtinacy for which you have no longer any legitimate excuſe, either military or political, I muſt obſerve to you that your anſwer will irrevocably decide the fate of Valenciennes. You will not be admitted to capitulate after to-day: I ſhall no longer liſten to any propoſals, and the town being taken by ſtorm, you know too well the terrible conſequences it has to expect.

Signed,
FREDERICK Duke of YORK;
Commander in Chief of the
July 27. Beſieging Armies.

SUMMONS to the MUNICIPALITY.

I ſend you herewith a copy of what I have written to the commander of your town; and inform you that he will expoſe you to the moſt dreadful fate, if he ſtill perſiſts in his refuſal to accept the offer of a capitulation, by which the honour of the garriſon, and what remains of your property, will be preſerved. You will owe this fate to an obſtinacy very ill underſtood; as you muſt be ſenſible that, in the preſent circumſtances, you can neither defend the place, nor expect aſſiſtance. His proclamation of the 21ſt of June is a libel againſt the armies now before your walls. The reputation of theſe brave and well diſciplined troops cannot ſuffer from his calumnies; but you have every thing to fear from the vengeance of ſoldiers provoked by ſuch publications. It will not be in the power of the moſt humane chief to ſcreen you from it, if you oblige us to come to theſe extremities. Be upon your guard againſt inſinuations, by which you would ſacrifice all you poſſeſs to the intereſt of one; and let thoſe among you, who are willing and able to act for the beſt, prevent, by a prudent reſolution, the deveſtation and carnage which would be the conſequence of a reſiſtance uſeleſsly continued for a few days. This day expired, your commander will no longer be admitted to capitulate. If your town is taken by ſtorm, it will be plundered, and nothing can prevent the maſſacre of both ſoldiers and inhabitants. May this dreadful example, which I wiſh you to avoid, be a leſſon to other towns; and give to the inhabitants, well inclined, energy enough to avoid a fate, which thoſe of yours, by an unpardonable weakneſs, expoſe themſelves to ſhare equally with the perverſe.

Signed,
FREDERICK Duke of YORK,
Commander in Chief of the
Beſieging Army.

[On this, a truce was agreed on for twenty-four hours, by letters between the commander of the garriſon, and the duke of York.]

Eſtreux, July 28, 1793.

Sir,

It is with the utmoſt ſatisfaction that I have the honour of acquainting you with the ſurrender of the town and citadel of Valenciennes to the combined army under the command of his royal highneſs the duke of York.

The ſucceſsful attack of the 25th, and the lodgement in the horn-work, ſeem to have made a ſtrong impreſſion upon the enemy; and to have diſpoſed them to receive in a favourable manner the ſummons which was ſent by his royal highneſs to the general and inhabitants upon the following day.

The alacrity with which the troops have undergone the hardſhips and ſevere duty of the ſiege, as well as the reſolution which they diſplayed in ſituations of danger, deſerve the higheſt praiſe.

Batteries were allotted at different times to be worked by the royal artillery; and every commendation is due to major Congreve and to the officers and men of that corps, who have upon this occaſion fully ſupported the reputation which they have ſo long enjoyed.

Though colonel Moncrieff was not charged with the direction of the ſiege, the greateſt advantages have been derived from his profeſſional knowledge, activity, and zeal; particularly in taking and keeping poſſeſſion of the horn-work.

I incloſe a return of the loſs of the Britiſh and Hanoverian troops during the whole of the ſiege, by which it appears that the number of the killed and wounded of the former, as it ſtands at this moment, amounts to ninety, including all ranks. Suppoſing the latter to have had ſlight wounds in the ſame proportion, the loſs at preſent will be about 150.

The moſt dangerous, as well as the moſt laborious parts of the ſiege, fell to the lot of the Imperial forces. They have had about 1300 officers and men killed and wounded; from which, however, the ſame deduction may be made.

Any further particulars, which you may be deſirous to be informed of, will be explained by captain Calvert, aide-de-camp to his royal highneſs, who was employed in carrying on the intercourſe relative to the capitulation of the town; and whoſe zeal and intelligence upon this, as well as upon many former occaſions, have been highly approved of by his royal highneſs.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. MURRAY.

Letter from General Ferrand, commanding at Valenciennes, to the Duke of York, Commander in Chief of the Combined Army at the Siege.

I have the honour of ſending you the ſeries of articles of the capitulation that you have offered me, announcing the new dangers which the inhabitants had to fear. You will be pleaſed, general, to anſwer them article by article, and let me have the reſult.

I think that the ſuſpenſion will continue till your anſwer is received. On my part I will conform to it.

FERRAND, General of the Diviſion.

The Municipality of Valenciennes to the Duke of York, General and Commander in Chief of the combined Troops before this Place.

General,

We have received the letter which you did us the honour to write to us, the 26th of this month.

After the offer which you there make of an honourable capitulation, we reunited ourſelves to the civil and military authorities: you will ſee the reſult of this aſſembly in the articles addreſſed to you this day by general Ferrand. You will obſerve that theſe propoſitions are founded upon the juſtice which you promiſe to adminiſter to the garriſon, and upon the humanity you manifeſt with regard to the inhabitants.

The Members compoſing the General Council of the Commons.

Morlier, Secretaire. Pourtales, Maire.

Valenciennes, July 27, 1793.

Articles of Capitulation, propoſed by the General of the Diviſion, Ferrand, commanding the Troops of the French Republic, at Valenciennes, the 26th of July 1793.

To Frederick Duke of York, commanding the combined Army, at the ſiege of Valenciennes.

General Ferrand will deliver up to the duke of York the town and citadel of Valenciennes, upon the following conditions.

Anſwer. General Ferrand ſhall deliver up to his royal highneſs the duke of York, commander in chief of the combined army employed at the ſiege of Valenciennes, for his majeſty the emperor and king, the town and citadel of Valenciennes, on the conditions hereafter ſtipulated.

Article

Article I. The garriſon ſhall obtain the honours of war, as well as every military article.—Anſ. The garriſon ſhall march out by the gate of Cambray with the honours of war; and ſhall lay down their arms at the houſe called Le Briquet, where they ſhall leave their colours and pieces, without damaging them in the leaſt. They ſhall likewiſe leave the troop horſes, artillery, proviſions, and other military effects. Thoſe belonging to the officers ſhall be reſtored to them, with their ſwords.

II. All the ammunition of whatever kind, artillery, and every article, conſtituting and making part of the army, ſhall be retained.—Anſ. Refuſed.

III. The garriſon ſhall march out from the place on the ſixth day after the ſignature of the capitulation, by the gate of Tournay; to repair to ſuch part of the republic as general Ferrand ſhall judge proper, with arms and baggage, horſes, drums beating, matches lighted at both ends, colours flying, and all the cannon they can carry away.—Anſ. The garriſon ſhall march out on the 1ſt of Auguſt, in the manner ſtipulated by the firſt article; and as they ſhall be priſoners of war, their route to return into France ſhall be communicated to them twenty-four hours previouſly to their departure; in order to receive their parole of honour and the officers; as well as to arrange other matters reſpecting the ſoldiery; who ſhall engage not to ſerve during the whole courſe of the preſent war againſt the armies of his majeſty the emperor, and of his allies; without having been exchanged conformably to the cartels, under pain of military puniſhment.

IV. The other pieces of artillery ſhall follow in eight days after the departure of the garriſon, as well as the ammunition and military effects.—Anſ. Refuſed, as to what relates to the artillery; and, in general, to all the warlike ſtores and proviſions, and other military articles; but granted, as to what relates to the perſonal property of the officers and ſoldiers of the garriſon.

V. The neceſſary carriages and horſes for the tranſport of the baggage and for mounting the officers, ſhall be paid for as may be agreed upon.—Anſ. The neceſſary carriages and horſes for the tranſport of the baggage ſhall be provided for the garriſon, on being paid for; and the commiſſaries at war, who ſhall on their part remain in the place, ſhall be perſonally reſponſible for the return of the ſaid carriages and horſes.

VI. Twelve covered waggons ſhall be provided, which are not to be ſearched.—Anſ. Refuſed.

VII. The convaleſcent ſoldiers, in a ſituation of being removed, ſhall be carried away, and the neceſſary carriages for their removal ſhall alſo be provided by the beſiegers.—Anſ. Granted, under the ſtipulations of the fifth article.

VIII. As to the ſick who are unable to bear removal, they ſhall remain in the hoſpitals where they now are; being taken care of by the officers of health appointed for that purpoſe, at the expenſe of the republic, under the inſpection of a commiſſary at war; and whenever theſe ſick perſons ſhall be fit for removal, they ſhall in like manner be furniſhed with carriages.—Anſ. Granted, provided that the commiſſaries remaining for the adminiſtration of the hoſpitals ſhall be ſubject to the military police, as well as thoſe mentioned in the fifth article; and the convaleſcent ſoldiers ſhall be priſoners, as ſtipulated in the third article.

IX. The repreſentatives of the people, and all perſons attached to the republic, of whatever deſcription they may be, ſhall participate in the capitulation of the army, and ſhall enjoy the ſame conditions.—Anſ. All perſons, not military, being conſidered as citizens, ſhall enjoy the treatment granted to this claſs of perſons.

X. The deſerters ſhall remain reciprocally in the corps in which they are, without being moleſted. With regard to the priſoners they may be exchanged.—Anſ. Refuſed. The deſerters ſhall be ſcrupulouſly delivered up before the garriſon leaves the place; and the neceſſary ſearches ſhall be made to diſcover thoſe who may be concealed. The Auſtrian priſoners, and thoſe of the allied powers, ſhall be faithfully reſtored.

XI. Commiſſaries ſhall be appointed on both ſides, to fix upon the objects which ſhall be adjudged to the republic; as well as all the papers relative to the artillery, the fortifications and military regiſters, as well thoſe of this town as of every other place belonging to the republic. The ſame ſhall be obſerved with reſpect to all the papers of the civil and military adminiſtrations.—Anſ. Commiſſaries from all the military and civil departments ſhall be appointed, to receive the papers, effects, and military buildings, artillery, caſt-iron, arſenals, warlike ſtores and proviſions, military and civil cheſts. In a word, all the other objects belonging to the government, of whatever deſcription. Theſe commiſſaries ſhall be introduced

into the town immediately after the exchange of hoſtages. The chiefs of the different corps ſhall be perſonally reſponſible for the frauds which may be committed in the delivery of the papers, cheſts, artillery, and other objects abovementioned.

XII. The inhabitants of both ſexes at preſent in this town, or thoſe who have taken refuge in it, the public functionaries, and all the other agents of the French republic, ſhall be protected in their honours, their lives, and their properties, with permiſſion to retire wherever they pleaſe.—Anſ. The good order and diſcipline of the allied armies will preſerve the inhabitants from every kind of inſult in their perſons and properties.

XIII. For the maintenance of order in the police, the ſafety of perſons, and preſervation of property, the conſtituted authorities, and the tribunals ſhall remain in the diſcharge of their functions until it may be otherwiſe provided. The deciſions of the tribunals ſhall be reſpected, and no conſtituted authority ſhall be called to account for the legal proceedings of its adminiſtration, or of its juriſdiction.—Anſ. Refuſed; but the adminiſtrative and judicial corps ſhall be reſpected, until it ſhall have been otherwiſe provided by his Imperial majeſty.

XIV. No perſon ſhall be moleſted for his opinions, whatever they may have been, nor for what he ſhall have lawfully ſaid or done before or during the ſiege.—Anſ. The intention of his majeſty the emperor and king is, that the peaceable inhabitants ſhould in no wiſe be diſturbed.

XV. The inhabitants ſhall not be ſubjected to the quartering of troops.—Anſ. Granted; as far as the number and accommodation of the military buildings will allow.

XVI. The inhabitants ſhall not be obliged to perform any military duty, and thoſe who have done ſo till the preſent moment ſhall not be conſidered as military.—Anſ. The inhabitants ſhall not be obliged to perform any military ſervice, except in the uſual caſes, in the provinces of his majeſty the emperor in the Low Countries. As to thoſe who ſhall be armed or in uniform, they ſhall be treated as the other military, according to the third article.

XVII. The inhabitants ſhall alſo be exempted from military labour.—Anſ. Referred to the ſixteenth article.

XVIII. Thoſe perſons who ſhall chooſe to reſide elſewhere, ſhall have liberty to depart from the town with their families, baggage, furniture, and effects, and to diſpoſe of their immoveable property, or what is deemed ſuch, to the profit of whomſoever they may think proper, during the term of ſix months.—Anſ. The inhabitants ſhall be permitted to retire with their effects, wherever they pleaſe, and paſſports ſhall be granted to them in conſequence.

XIX. All thoſe who may wiſh to return to, or to come and inhabit in this city, ſhall be received, and ſhall enjoy the ſame advantages as the other inhabitants.—Anſ. Granted.

XX. The preſent currency, namely, aſſignats, ſhall continue to be received.—Anſ. Refuſed to acknowledge aſſignats as money, until an ulterior arrangement.

XXI. The national domains, which have been ſold in conformity to the exiſting laws, ſhall be preſerved to the purchaſers.—Anſ. This article, not being of a military nature, ſhall be reſerved, as the preceding one, for future arrangement.

XXII. The commonalty ſhall continue to enjoy the properties which they at preſent poſſeſs, both moveables and immoveables, eſpecially the corn which they have in magazines, for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants.—Anſ. Anſwered as the preceding article. With regard to the magazines of corn, they ſhall be diſpoſed of for the benefit of the perſon to whom they of right belong.

XXIII. The colleges, hoſpitals, and other charitable eſtabliſhments, ſhall continue in the free and peaceable enjoyment of all their property, moveable and immoveable.—Anſ. Granted for all legitimate property.

XXIV. All debts contracted before and during the ſiege by the municipality, the general-council of the commonalty, and the other conſtituted authorities, whether liquidated or to be liquidated, ſhall be held as lawfully and juſtly contracted.—Anſ. The debts contracted by the garriſon, the military citizens and inhabitants of whatever deſcription, ſhall be liquidated to the ſatisfaction of the parties.

XXV. If any difficulty in the terms and conditions of the capitulation ſhould occur, it ſhall be underſtood in the moſt favourable ſenſe for the garriſon of the place and its inhabitants.—Anſ. All the anſwers above-mentioned being clearly expreſſed,

expreſſed, this article is without an object.

Given at my head-quarters before Valenciennes, this 28th of July, 1793.

(Signed) FREDERICK Duke of YORK, Commander in Chief of the Allied Army beſieging Valenciennes.

At Valenciennes, the 27th of July, 1793, in the 2d year of the French Republic.

(Signed) FERRAND, the General of the Diviſion commanding in the place.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES.

Art. I. This day, the 28th of July, at ſeven o'clock in the morning, the garriſon ſhall deliver up to the forces of the beſieging army the outworks, the half-moon, the crownwork, the counter-garde, and the pate of the gate for the ſuccour of the citadel, as well as the half-moon and the horn-work of the gate of Cambray. And, for the ſake of preſerving order until the departure of the garriſon, they ſhall retain the interior of the gate of the Corps du Place, of the citadel, and of the city, until their departure.

II. If an anſwer is not returned by general Ferrand before ſeven o'clock in the evening, it is declared to him that the fire of the trenches will recommence at nine o'clock, when the truce will be terminated by his ſilence.

III. The commanders of the different corps, who have papers or effects to deliver up, ſhall remain in the place until the delivery and inventories of the papers and effects ſhall have been made by the imperial commiſſaries.

IV. As ſoon as the capitulation ſhall be ſigned, hoſtages ſhall be ſent in the place, namely, a colonel, a major and a captain; who ſhall be exchanged againſt officers of an equal rank of the garriſon; which hoſtages ſhall be reſtored immediately after the execution of the articles of the capitulation.

Given at my head-quarters before Valenciennes, this 28th of July, 1793.

(Signed) FREDERICK Duke of YORK, Commander in Chief of the Allied Army beſieging Valenciennes.

Letter from General Ferrand, Commander in Chief at Valenciennes, to Frederick Duke of York, commanding the combined Armies beſieging that place, dated July 28, 1793, the 2d year of the Republic.

Upon the receipt of your letter I aſſembled the council of war; and as ſoon as we became acquainted with the articles it contains, it appeared very evident to us that the promiſe you had made to us yeſterday was withdrawn; for in the articles you now propoſe no mention is made of an honourable capitulation.

In conſequence I perſiſt, as well as the other members of the general council of war, in my demand of the firſt article being entirely preſerved. We moreover demand that citizens Cochon and Brie, repreſentatives of the people, be allowed to accompany the garriſon. We perſiſt in the ſecond article in our demand, that a field piece, either a four or an eight pounder, with its carriage, be allowed to each battalion. We perſiſt, alſo, in the third article, as far as the allowance of three days to the garriſon to leave the place.

And, laſtly, in the ſixth article, reducing, however, our demand to ſix waggons inſtead of twelve; and that nothing ſhall be changed in the articles VIII. X. and XI.

I have the honour to ſend you ſix commiſſioners, as well civil as military; they will deliver this letter to you, and are authorized to treat with you, having full power for that effect.

The garriſon that I have the honour to command has fought ſo bravely, that it will immortaliſe itſelf by continuing to defend the place, and terminating its military career upon the breach whenever it is made.

(Signed) FERRAND.

Letter from his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, Commander of the Combined Army, to General Ferrand, Commander in Valenciennes.

In anſwer to your letter of the 28th inſtant, you will ſee, ſir, by the capitulation I ſend you herewith, ſigned and agreed to by the commiſſioners ſent and authoriſed by you, what I have been able to grant to your garriſon. You will have the goodneſs, according to cuſtom, to ſend, in the courſe of this day, your hoſtages, to be exchanged againſt thoſe to be given by me, and to give your orders that the gate of Cambray, that for the relief of the citadel, and that of Tournay, be given up. It will be better if all theſe meaſures can take place before night.

(Signed) FREDERICK Duke of YORK, Commander of the Combined Armies.

Head-Quarters at Eſtreux, July 28.

By

By the return of the killed and wounded, the total is 1 enſign, 1 ſerjeant, 15 rank and file, 3 ſecond gunners, 1 labourer, killed; 1 captain, 3 lieutenants, 6 ſerjeants, 115 rank and file, 1 bombardier, 1 firſt gunner, 2 ſecond gunners, wounded; 18 rank and file dead of their wounds; 1 captain, 1 lieutenant, 4 ſerjeants, 53 rank and file, 1 bombardier, 1 gunner; 2 lieutenants, 2 ſerjeants, 42 rank and file, 1 firſt gunner, 2 ſecond gunners, under cure.

The officer killed was enſign Telemache of the 1ſt regiment of guards. Thoſe wounded were, lieutenant-colonel the earl of Cavan, of ditto, lieutenant Sterling of the flank battalion, lieutenant Dier of the 14th regiment, all under cure.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, Wedneſday, Auguſt 14.

Whitehall, Aug. 14. The diſpatches, of which the following are copies, were yeſterday received at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

Sir, Eſtreux, Aug. 6.

I have the honour to incloſe you a liſt of the garriſon of Valenciennes, as it ſtood at the end of the ſiege, with that of the ſtores which were taken in the town. It was computed that between 6 and 7,000 men marched out of the place, the reſt being ſick and wounded, part of which remained in the hoſpitals, and part followed in waggons. The garriſon was eſcorted to the firſt advanced poſts of the enemy. Accounts have been ſince received of their having retired to different parts of the country.

I had the opportunity of mentioning to you, in a former letter, that the conduct of the troops under the more immediate command of his royal highneſs had been ſuch as to merit the higheſt commendation; and it would be unjuſt not to obſerve, that equal praiſe is due to thoſe of his imperial majeſty.

Theſe were commanded by general count de Ferraris, an officer of diſtinguiſhed abilities, of which he furniſhed ample proofs upon this occaſion.

The ſiege was conducted with great ſkill and ſcience by colonel Fromm, chief engineer. The artillery was under the command of general Urtenburger, and appears to have been perfectly well directed, by its effects upon the enemy's works, and the number of guns which were found diſmounted upon the ramparts.

Juſt as the army arrived upon its ground, a party of the enemy, coming, as it is ſuppoſed, from Bouchain, attacked an advanced part of Hanoverians. They were driven back, with ſome loſs, by ſix ſquadrons of Hanoverian cavalry. His royal highneſs prince Erneſt was perſonally engaged, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf upon this occaſion. I am, &c. JA. MURRAY.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

State of the French troops which formed the garriſon of Valenciennes at the time of its ſurrender, from their liſts.

Officers - -	451
From ſerjeants downward	9,260
Total	9,711

By the return of the ordnance and ammunition found in the town and citadel of Valenciennes, it appears, that there were 130 cannons, 43 mortars, 11 howitzers, 60,600 cannon balls, 6,705 ſhells, and 1,350 howitzers ditto.

Sir, Bourlon, near Cambray, Aug. 9.

I have the honour to inform you that the enemy have been driven from the camp which they occupied behind the Scheld, and obliged to fall back with precipitation upon Arras, the only retreat which was left them. The front of this camp, which has been commonly called the Camp de Céſar, was covered by the Scheld, its left by the Ceuſé, both of them ſtrengthened by inundations and protected by works, and its right by the fortreſs of Cambray; behind this lie the wood and heights of Bourlon, which were likewiſe fortified with the utmoſt care. The Britiſh troops, ſeven battalions and ſix ſquadrons of Hanoverians, two battalions and five ſquadrons of Heſſians, and four battalions and ten ſquadrons of Auſtrians, marched from their reſpective camps the morning of the 6th, and joined the ſame evening in a camp near St. Anbert, under the command of his royal highneſs. This body marched the following morning, in one column, by the village of St. Hilaire, Bouſſiere, and Wambaix, and forming afterward into two, croſſed the Scheld at Creveloeur and Manieres. During the march a body of cavalry appeared upon the right flank toward Cambray, but they were driven back in great confuſion by the appearance of ſome cavalry deſtined to attack them, and a few ſhot from the Auſtrian light artillery.

The troops had been eleven hours upon their

their march when they reached Manieres, and the heat was extreme; it was conſequently impoſſible to proceed any further, and a camp was taken upon the adjoining heights.

In the evening, juſt after the 15th light dragoons had been watering their horſes, lieutenant-colonel Churchill obſerved a ſquadron of French cavalry at a ſmall diſtance; he immediately took one ſquadron, which happened to be in readineſs, leaving orders for the others to follow, and charged them with ſo much vigour and ſucceſs, that, beſide killing ſeveral, he took two officers, 44 privates, and 60 horſes. Sir Robert Lawrie advanced with the 16th regiment to the ſupport of the 15th.

Upon the ſame day a column of the Auſtrians, under the command of general Clairfait, advanced upon Youy and Thun L'Eveque, poſſeſſing themſelves, with little oppoſition, of all the poſts upon the right of the Scheld. A third column, under general Colloredo, marched upon Navres, to be in readineſs to co-operate with either of the former, as circumſtances might direct.

His royal highneſs put his corps again in motion upon the morning of the 8th, having divided it into three columns, directed upon the villages of Grainecourt, Anneux, and Cantain, with the intention of attacking the enemy upon the heights of Bourlon; but it was diſcovered that they had gone off in the night; and, as there was reaſon to believe that the army behind the Scheld had done the ſame, his royal highneſs took the whole of the cavalry (two ſquadrons of the Greys, and the Auſtrian regiment de la Tour, excepted) and went in purſuit. He fell in with the rear guard at the village of Murguion, where two pieces of cannon, the artillery men belonging to them, and ſeveral other priſoners, were taken by the 11th light dragoons and the huſſars of Barco. The enemy in their retreat ſet fire to the village, which occaſioned a conſiderable delay, there being no other paſſage than the bridge acroſs the rivulet upon which it ſtands. This obſtacle was at laſt overcome, and the enemy were followed to the next defile, by the village of Villers. A large body of cavalry, appearing to be between three and 4,000 men, with ſome battalions of infantry, and eight pieces of cannon, were ſeen upon the oppoſite heights. They continued their retreat; and, as no advantage ſeemed likely to accrue from further purſuit, the troops, after halting there ſome time, returned to the camp, which had been propoſed to be taken, near Bauſon. Several waggons were taken upon this and the former day.

General Clairfait croſſed the Scheld at day-break, when he found the enemy's camp entirely abandoned.

Lieutenant-general Avinſky, who commanded a ſmaller column upon the right, fell in with a poſt near Hordaing, killed ſeveral of them, and took 30 priſoners.

The loſs of the combined army has been very inconſiderable. I incloſe that of the light dragoons, the only troops under the immediate command of his royal highneſs, who have ſuffered at all.

It is difficult to aſcertain the loſs of the enemy: they have ſuffered upon ſeveral occaſions. There are about 150 priſoners, and a great many deſerters.

Return of the killed, wounded and miſſing of the brigade of light dragoons, commanded by major-general Dundas, on the 8th inſtant, it appears, that 6 privates were killed, 4 wounded, and 13 miſſing.

R. DUNDAS, Major-general.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, Thurſday, Auguſt 22.

Whitehall, Aug. 22. Late laſt night one of his majeſty's meſſengers arrived with a diſpatch from colonel ſir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highneſs the duke of York, to Mr. ſecretary Dundas, of which the following is a copy,

Sir, Menin, Aug. 19, 1793.

I have the honour to inform you that the army marched from Turcoing, upon the morning of the 18th, to a camp near this town. The hereditary prince of Orange made an attack the ſame day upon the French poſts of Mauvaix, Blaton, and Lincelles. This was in ſome degree advantageous to the operations of his royal highneſs, as it ſerved to cover his march, and to keep the enemy in a ſtate of uncertainty in regard to his deſigns.

The former of theſe attacks miſcarried; in the latter his ſerene highneſs ſucceeded without much loſs. About one o'clock in the afternoon the enemy, in their turn, attacked the poſt of Lincelles, and, as it afterward appeared, in great force. The prince of Orange, who had made large detachments from his camp for theſe different enterpriſes, requeſted of his royal

highneſs

highneſs to ſend three battalions to the ſupport of his troops. The three neareſt battalions, which happened to be thoſe of the firſt, Coldſtream, and third regiments of guards, were accordingly ordered to march, under the command of major-general Lake, for that purpoſe. Upon their arrival at Lincelles, they found the poſt in the poſſeſſion of the enemy. The Dutch troops, having been forced to abandon it, had retreated by a road different from that by which the Britiſh had advanced. To have fallen back in this ſituation muſt have preſented the enemy, evidently ſuperior in numbers, an opportunity of entirely defeating the detachment. General Lake embraced a reſolution worthier of the troops which he commanded, and which has been attended with glory and ſucceſs. He determined upon an immediate attack.

The enemy occupied a redoubt of uncommon ſize and ſtrength upon a height adjoining to the high road, in front of the village of Lincelles. The road itſelf was defended by other works ſtrongly paliſadoed; woods and ditches covered their flanks. The battalions were inſtantly formed, and advanced under a very heavy fire, with an order and intrepidity for which no praiſe can be too high. After firing three or four rounds, they ruſhed on with their bayonets, ſtormed the redoubt, and drove the enemy through the village. At the end of the village the latter rallied under the protection of other troops, and kept up, for ſome time, a ſevere fire: but they were again defeated, and ſo entirely put to the rout, that they have not ſince appeared in that quarter. They loſt eleven pieces of cannon, two of which had been before taken from the Dutch. There are about fifty priſoners: the number of killed and wounded cannot be aſcertained with any preciſion; it is calculated at between two and three hundred men. By the concurring teſtimony of theſe priſoners, the enemy had twelve battalions upon the poſt, and muſt have been upward of 5000 men.

I am ſorry to add, that ſuch difficulties could not be overcome without conſiderable loſs. The fall of two gallant officers, and the brave men who have ſuffered upon this occaſion, muſt be matter of regret. It can only be imputed to the ability of major-general Lake, and the extraordinary valour of the officers and men, that the loſs has not been ſtill greater. The conduct of colonel Grinfield, colonel Hulſe, and colonel Pennington, has reflected honour upon themſelves, and merited his royal highneſs' warmeſt approbation. Equal praiſe is due to major Wright, and the officers and men of the royal artillery attached to the battalions.

As ſoon as the retreat of the Dutch troops was known, ſeveral battalions were ordered from camp to ſupport the guards. They arrived after the action was at an end, but remained to ſtrengthen the poſt (which the Dutch had by this time re-occupied) during the night. They returned to camp this morning. The French made an attack this day upon the Dutch poſt at Roubaix, in which they have been repulſed with conſiderable loſs.

The works of Lincelles have been deſtroyed, and the poſt left unoccupied. I have the honour to be, &c.

JAMES MURRAY.

By the return of the killed and wounded, the total is 1 captain, 1 lieutenant, 2 ſerjeants, 1 drummer, 35 rank and file killed; 3 captains, 5 lieutenants, 2 enſigns, 6 ſerjeants, 131 rank and file wounded.

Names of officers killed and wounded, Firſt regiment; colonel D'Oyley, colonel Evans, captain Archer, captain Briſtow, captain Whetham, wounded. Coldſtream; lieutenant-colonel Boſville, killed; lieutenant-colonel Gaſcoyne, enſign Bayley, wounded. Third regiment; captain Cunynghame, wounded. Royal artillery; lieutenant De Peyſter, killed.

J. MURRAY, adjutant-general.

By the return of ordnance; ammunition, &c. it appears there were taken nine cannon, ſix waggons 705 cannon balls, 9378 muſket cartridges, 1296 flints, 93 portfires, 1087 tubes, and 37 horſes.

Turin, July 31. On the 29th inſtant, the French renewed their attempts to diſlodge the Sardinian troops from the poſts of L'Auchion and the Col de Raus. They marched at break of day, in three columns, againſt both the Sardinian camps, after a briſk cannonade from their batteries on the heights, but without effect. The French were repulſed on all ſides, and completely defeated, and were purſued by ſeveral detachments of the Sardinian troops quite to their intrenchments at Belvedere. The action laſted five hours at Auchion, and ſeven on the ſide of Raus. The loſs of the French amounted to 500 men killed. Of the king's troops only a few were wounded, and none killed.

Bruſſels, Aug. 18. Accounts have been received here, that yeſterday, prince Hohenlo

henloe gained a conſiderable advantage over the French, and completely driven them from their poſts in the foreſt of Mormal. The French loſt on this occaſion near 500 men killed and wounded, and 200 priſoners: their commander was among the former, and two colonels, with ſeveral other officers of rank, were among the latter. The loſs of the Auſtrians did not exceed ſixty men killed and wounded. The Auſtrians have taken poſſeſſion of Berlamont, Jolimetz, Loquigual, and Heck, and are preparing for the immediate ſiege of Queſnoy.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

ADDRESS TO GENIUS.

HAIL! thou Potent Energy of Mind,
Fancy and Judgment in one point combin'd;
To thee the Muſe her duteous off'ring brings;
Bend from thy throne, and liſten while ſhe ſings.—
Thy works enliv'ning form her chief delight;
Pains loſe their anguiſh, care its leaden weight,
When thou, in all thy native beauties dreſt,
Pour'ſt lenient balm, and ſooth'ſt the troubled breaſt.
By ſome ſtrange magic can thy language charm,
And ſoft infuſe its influence kind and warm,
Till by degrees the melting heart is won;
And as ſoft wax before the noon-day ſun
Pliant receives whatever form impreſt,
Thy cogent line ſo moulds th' enraptur'd breaſt.
Without thy aid, the tuneleſs verſe would flow
In jarring numbers, ſpiritleſs and ſlow;
No poliſh'd lines would ſmoothly glide along,
No ſtrength or elegance adorn the ſong.
Without thee education is but vain,
Witneſs poor Marcus' unproductive brain *;
In vain are all the lectures of the ſchools,
To form the mind by dry didactic rules,
If on that mind thou ſtern deny'ſt to ſmile,
Or grant the pow'r to fertilize the ſoil.
As wide th' aërial eagle takes his flight,
Thro' pureſt ether, far from human ſight,
On nervous pinions pois'd ſublimely rides,
And o'er the clear cerulean concave glides,
Far down beneath obſervant of his prey
The lazy kite purſues his circling way;
The lark, tho' ſkill'd to climb the morning ſkies,
His higheſt flight can ſcarce to midway riſe;
Nor can the Falcon's ſwifter pinions bear,
His rapid flight to ſuch a pitch in air.
Such is the mind whom thou haſt giv'n to ſoar
Thro' paths of ſcience unpurſu'd before,
With ſtrengthen'd wing he cleaves dark error's cloud,
And far below him leaves the wond'ring crowd;
There in clear ſkies, no intervening ſhade,
Truth's brighteſt radiance ſpotleſs ſhines diſplay'd;
In ſearch of knowledge takes his rapid flight,
Far as the ſolar rays tranſmit their light;
Dives to the centre, to the ſtars aſpires,
Thro' cities wanders, or to groves retires.
If this low ſyſtem we inhabit here
Be for his craving mind too ſtrait a ſphere,
One ſingle effort can tranſport him far
Beyond the light of the remoteſt ſtar;
There plac'd on high, ſerene, he views the whole
Of all creation's boundleſs ſyſtem roll.
Where'er thy fair celeſtial radiance ſhines,
Each object glows, and ev'ry ſcene refines;
A freſher green the verdant vales diſplay,
With higher tints the flow'rets greet the day,
And thicker leaves the ady groves adorn;
More gaily ſmile the waving crops of corn,
With ſweeter murmur glides the ſtream along,
And more melodious floats the warbler's ſong.
To rugged rocks and barren deſerts thou
Canſt graces lend, and thouſand charms beſtow;

* The ſon of Cicero, who notwithſtanding the utmoſt that parental tenderneſs could do in his education, could never be made to ſhine in any ſcience.

With pleaſure o'er the boundleſs wilds we hie,
Peep o'er the precipice with trembling joy,
Forbidding horrors baniſh'd by degrees;
Ev'n drear deformity itſelf can pleaſe.
Enchanting Pow'r! ah, leave dark Vice's ſhade!
From all her vot'ries, ah, withdraw thine aid:
Thy magic pencil never more impart
To hide their frauds, or aid her guileful art,
To bid her charms in borrow'd graces ſhine,
By touch ethereal heightened to divine.
To Virtue all thy kind aſſiſtance lend,
Ah! be to Virtue, as the Muſe, a friend;
Then ſhall the hag no more triumphant reign,
But, laſh'd by ſcorpions, fly the ſacred plain,
Where thou, and Virtue, hand in hand, unite;
And wide diffuſe your radiant heav'nly light.
By thee unſanction'd then ſhall crimes no more
Dare to appear, but murm'ring leave the ſhore:
No more ſhall Fraud in ſpecious habit rove,
Or vile Seduction wear the maſk of Love,
No more beneath the name of harmleſs joy
Debauch'ry ſhall the vital pow'rs deſtroy,
Or Calumny like pureſt friendſhip ſhow,
And watch its time to give the ſecret blow;
Do thou diveſt them of their dark diſguiſe,
Which hides their foulneſs from all common eyes;
Then ſwept away before thy dreaded ire,
Back to their native ſhades the fiends retire.
Point thou the way, and ſhow the bright abode,
The mole-ey'd atheiſt ſhall diſcern a God:
Sudden the miſts of prejudice ſhall flee
Far from around him, rarefied by thee;
No more proud blaſphemy ſhall foul his tongue,
But wond'ring how his reaſon dark ſo long
Such obvious truths could paſs unheeded by,
He owns the Deity with heartfelt joy;
Exulting flies to join the grateful train,
And praiſe triumphant fills the ſacred fane.

EUSEBIUS.

HYMN TO HOPE.

O HOPE, thou ſweet benignant power,
Deſcended from above,
And ſent by Heaven to loſt mankind,
On errands full of love!

Alas! no more thy beamy fear,
Illumes my dreary way;
For diſappointment's frequent tear
Has quench'd the ſilver ray.

Bright angel! ſent by fate to cheer,
Life's more than wintry glooms;
And ſtrew, mid ſorrows harpeſt thorns,
Thy viſionary blooms;

How ſweetly glow'd the opening buds,
In fancy's vernal morn!
I ſtretch'd my hand to pluck the flower,
But felt the piercing thorn.

Tho' oft allur'd, as oft deceiv'd;
But now the charm is o'er;
The dream is fled—the ſcene is clos'd,
And Hope enchants no more!

Not as when erſt in fancy's morn,
She met my raptur'd view;
When fluttering round her radiant form,
The bright ideas flew;

A varied creſt of Indian plumes,
Play'd o'er her lab'ring brow;
Her robe a ſun-gilt weſtern cloud,
Her zone th' ethereal bow.

Now flow around a veſtal ſtole,
Of pure unſullied white;
And fair Elyſian blooms inwreathe
Her brow ſerenely bright.

Her hand a ſilver lamp diſplays,
To cheer the awful gloom;
She treads the damp vault's dreary maze,
And leads me to the tomb.

She bids it ope its marble jaws,
To take me to its breaſt;
For there the troublous ſpirits ceaſe,
And there the weary reſt.

To ELIZA, when ſinging, and playing on the Harpſichord.

SHOULD ſweet Eliza deign to move
The harmonizing, trembling wire;
My ſoul, inſpir'd with genial love,
Exults to feel the ſecret fire.

But ſhould her ſprightly voice proclaim
A ſong romantic or divine,
No breaſt can then a ſoul contain,
So wrapt in Love's ſoft chains as mine!

Ye

Ye Gods! excite this blooming maid,
Who dwells in ev'ry charm ſecure,
To heal the wound that ſhe has made,
Beyond another's art to cure!

Sunderland, P. T.
Aug. 15, 1793.

ADDRESS to CONTENTMENT.

[From Poems by Lady Manners.]

CONTENTMENT, roſy, dimpled fair,
Thou brighteſt daughter of the ſky,
Why doſt thou to the hut repair,
And from the gilded palace fly?

I've trac'd thee on the peaſant's cheek;
I've mark'd thee in the milkmaid's ſmile;
I've heard thee loudly laugh and ſpeak,
Amid the ſons of want and toil.

Yet, in the circles of the great,
Where Fortune's gifts are all combin'd,
I've ſought thee early, ſought thee late,
And ne'er thy lovely form could find.
Since then from Wealth and Pomp you flee,
I aſk but Competence and Thee.

STANZAS on STEEPHILL, the beautiful Cottage of Mr. STANLEY, in the Iſle of Wight.

[From the Same.]

YE tow'ring hills, whoſe front ſublime
The miſty vapour often ſhrouds,
Whoſe ſummits, braving envious time,
Aſpire to pierce the vagrant clouds!

Ye trees, that to the balmy gale,
Low murmuring, bow your verdant heads;
Ye laviſh flowers that ſcent the vale,
Where roſy Health delighted treads!

Ye ſtreams that through the meadow ſtray,
In many a wild fantaſtic round,
Or, ſparkling, urge your rapid way
O'er rocks with bending oſiers crown'd!

Ye whitening cliffs, that o'er the main
In dreadful majeſty ariſe,
Whoſe dangers to elude, in vain
Too oft the trembling ſailors tries!

Each varied ſcene, with native charms
Excels what Fancy ever drew;
Where, ſhelter'd in Retirement's arms,
Contentment ſweetly reſts—Adieu!

And thou, romantic, ſtraw-roof'd cot,
Whoſe walls are from diſſention free,
The hours ſhall never be forgot,
The happy hours I've paſs'd in thee!

Where Hoſpitality preſides,
And pours from Plenty's copious horn;
Where unaffected Worth reſides,
And feſtive Mirth gilds ev'ry morn.

O! may they long exert their power,
Long guard from ill this bleſt retreat;
And ever, through life's chequer'd hour,
With ſmiles of peace its owners greet!

And may no blaſt e'er rend theſe trees,
Or ſpoil this garden's gaudy bloom;
But the ſoft ſhower and gentle breeze
Preſerve its colour and perfume!

Ah me! I muſt no more delay,
For ſee the ſwelling ſails in view;
The wind propitious chides my ſtay,
Romantic cot, again adieu!

On the preſent unhappy Situation of the QUEEN of FRANCE, and her Son.

[From 'The Emigrants,' a Poem, by Mrs. Charlotte Smith.]

UNHAPPY France!
If o'er thy lilies, trampled now in duſt,
And blood-beſpotted, ſhall again revive
In ſilver ſplendour, may the wreath be wov'n
By voluntary hands; and Freemen, ſuch
As England's ſelf might boaſt, unite to place
The guarded diadem on *his* fair brow
Where Loyalty may join with Liberty,
To fix it firmly.—In the rugged ſchool
Of ſtern Adverſity ſo early trained,
His future life, perchance, may emulate
That of the brave Bernois *, ſo juſtly called
The father of his people.—
Innocent priſ'ner, moſt unhappy heir
Of fatal greatneſs, who art ſuff'ring now
For all the crimes and follies of thy race;
Better for thee, if o'er thy baby brow
The regal miſchief never had been held:
Then, in a humble ſphere, perhaps content,
Thou hadſt been free and joyous on the heights
Of Pyrennean mountains, ſhagg'd with woods
Of cheſnut, pine, and oak; as on theſe
Is yonder little thoughtleſs ſhepherd lad.

* Henry IV.

——————While I gaze
On his gay vacant countenance, my thoughts
Compare with his obſcure, laborious lot,
Thine, moſt unfortunate, Imperial boy!
Who round thy fallen priſon daily hear'ſt
The ſavage howl of murder, as it ſeeks
Thy unoffending life: while ſad within
Thy wretched mother, petrified with grief,
Views thee with ſtony eyes, and cannot weep!—
Ah! much I mourn thy ſorrows, hapleſs Queen!
And deem thy explation made to Heav'n
For every fault, to which Proſperity
Betray'd thee, when it placed thee on a throne
Where boundleſs power was thine, and thou wert rais'd
High (as it ſeem'd) above the envious reach
Of Deſtiny!—Whate'er thy errors were,
Be they no more remember'd; tho' the rage
Of Party ſwell'd them to ſuch crimes, as bade
Compaſſion ſtifle every ſigh that roſe
For thy diſaſtrous lot—More than enough
Haſt thou endur'd; and ev'ry Engliſh heart,
Ev'n thoſe that higheſt beat in Freedom's cauſe,
Diſclaim, as baſe, and of that cauſe unworthy,
The vengeance or the fear that makes thee ſtill
A miſerable Priſoner!

THE THEATRE.

ON Saturday, Auguſt 3, a new Piece, called The MOUNTAINEERS, was performed, for the firſt time, at the Theatre Royal, in the Haymarket. It is the production of Mr. Colman, junior, and was received with the warmeſt applauſe. The characters was thus repreſented:

Octavian, Mr. Kemble; Balcazem Muly, Mr. Benſley; Virolet, Mr. Barrymore; Sadi, Mr. Banniſter, jun. Killmallock, Mr. Johnſtone; Rocke, Mr. Aickin; Spaniſh Landlord, Mr. Parſons. —Zorayda, Mrs. Kemble; Floranthe, Mrs. Goodall; Agnes, Mrs. Bland.

The fable is as follows: Granada is the ſcene of action, and the time is in the year 1492, when the Moors were driven out of that kingdom, poſſeſſing only the city of that name. A Spaniſh nobleman, named Virolet, had been taken by the Moors, in company with an Iriſh gentleman, alſo in the ſervice of Spain. Zorayda, daughter of the Mooriſh governor, conceives a partiality for Virolet, and reſolves to procure him his liberty. She is alſo urged by religious ſentiments, her mother having been a Chriſtian, and having intreated her, in her laſt moments, to renounce the Mahometan perſuaſion. Zorayda is luckily intruſted with the keys of the Alhambra, or Mooriſh palace. The lovers are aſſiſted in their flight by Sadi, the ſuperintendant of the ſlaves, who is in love with Agnes the female attendant on Zorayda. They all eſcape together, accompanied by Killmallock; but Sadi and Agnes are ſeparated from the reſt in the mountainous wilderneſs. Sadi and Agnes here meet with Octavian, a Spaniſh gentleman, who having been denied the miſtreſs of his heart by her auſtere father, flies to the deſerts to pine in ſilence and obſcurity. Octavian leads them to a cottage. Near the cottage is an inn, at which arrive Floranthe and her faithful ſervant Rocke in purſuit of the unfortunate Octavian, whoſe reaſon is bewildered under the preſſure of his hopeleſs paſſion. The father of Floranthe is dead, and the rival of Octavian, whom the latter thought he had killed in a duel, is married to another; and therefore Floranthe, who is equally attached to Octavian, ſeeks her lover with impatient fondneſs. When the governor, Balcazam Muly, diſcovered the elopement of his daughter, he directly ſet out in purſuit of her; but his ſoldiers, worn with fatigue, fall aſleep, and he continues his ſearch alone. He finds Zorayda repoſing, while Virolet and Killmallock are trying to diſcover a ſafe road from a neighbouring eminence. Balcazen bitterly reproaches his daughter, who remains firm in the cauſe of Chriſtianity, and is at length ſo enraged with her, that he is going to ſacrifice her on the ſpot, but is prevented by Octavian, who ruſhes in, and ſnatches away his ſcimitar. Octavian finding Zorayda was likely to fall a victim to an obdurate parent, ſmarting under his own griefs, is going to kill Balcazem, but Virolet returns and ſeizes his hand. Octavian had previouſly ſeen his Floranthe, and matters were happily ſettled between them. The governor at laſt compaſſionates his child, and, knowing that his life was ſaved by Virolet, gives his daughter as the recompence.

The comic parts of this drama ariſe from the whimſical humours of Killmallock, the pleaſantry of Sadi and Agnes, and the oddities of the Spaniſh innkeeper.

This piece is very intereſting on the whole, and abounds with poetical flights, fine imagery, and vigorous ſentiment. The language is raiſed on the Shakſperian baſis.

The muſic comes from Dr. Arnold; it is full of taſte, ſimplicity, and elegance. The airs are ſuch as might be ſuppoſed to have been of Mooriſh origin, wild, ſtriking, and intereſting. The overture is a good compoſition, varied, but without extravagance, and ſuſtaining an appropriate feature of martial ſpirit.

There are ſome charming ſcenes, particularly the bulwarks of Granada, the Alhambra, and the mountainous tracts of Spain.

On Monday, Aug. 12, a new muſical Piece, in two acts, called CAERNARVON CASTLE, or The BIRTH of the PRINCE of WALES, was performed, for the firſt time, at the Theatre Royal in the Haymarket. The characters were thus repreſented:

King Edward, Mr. Barrymore; Edmund de Mortimer, Mr. Davis; Philip le Brun, Mr. Suett; Adam de Franction, Mr. Banniſter jun. Merlin, Mr. Banniſter:—Roſa, Mrs. Bland; Jane, Miſs De Camp; Iſabell, Mrs. Kemble.

The fable is founded on the well-known fact of ſubjecting Wales to the dominion of England by having a Prince born there, the Queen lying-in at Caernarvon Caſtle.

To give this a dramatic turn, a love ſtory is interwoven, wherein Jane, a relation of Edward, entertained an affection for Edmund de Mortimer; but being promiſed by the king to Philip le Brun, the author of the piece has produced from this circumſtance ſome pretty intereſting ſcenes, and concluded the whole with a brilliant tranſparency, founded on the ſuppoſition of Merlin's prophecying the future princes of Wales. This tranſparency diſplays the feathers, with *Ich dien*, and a blazing ſtar, under which appears the 12th of Auguſt.

The dialogue is neat, and the ſtrokes of wit prettily introduced. That part which is ſentimental finds its way to the heart, and the loyalty of ſeveral paſſages well merited that univerſal applauſe they received.

AFFAIRS OF FRANCE,

Continued from Page 66.

THE proceedings of the convention ſeemed now to aſſume a character that renders the peruſal of them, not only unintereſting, but even diſguſting. Reports of victories gained, or defeats ſuffered, announced, in either caſe, with circumſtances that render it neceſſary to ſuſpend belief; decrees, thundered by the ruling party in the convention againſt the partizans of their vanquiſhed colleagues, and reſiſted with vigour by many powerful bodies—theſe have been the general circumſtances; important enough on the ſpot to agitate every mind, without immediately producing any thing deciſive. We ſhall not attempt, therefore, to follow them in the diurnal routine of anarchy, but ſhall be content to ſeize the more prominent events, as they appear diſtinguiſhed by ſomething that may ſeem to accelerate the deciſion of the great conteſt; exhibiting with pleaſure every trait of goodneſs and magnanimity, and holding up to deteſtation every act of violence and atrocity.

On the 18th of June, the deputies of the ſix ſections of the town of Arras came to adhere to the decrees that had been paſſed ſince the 31ſt of May. The declared that THOMAS PAINE, Perſonne, Magzier, Daunou, and Varlet, the five deputies of their department, who ſat on the right ſide, had loſt their confidence.

On the 24th of June, a letter was read from general Cuſtine, informing the convention, that a French priſoner having broke his parole and eſcaped from Tirlemont, he had ſent him back to the enemy, that his deſertion might not be a blot on the honour of the French army.

On the 24th of June, the convention finally adopted the New Conſtitution. We ſhall not preſent this to our readers till it is ultimately accepted by the people; and not even then, till the turn of affairs may afford a reaſonable hope that it will be permanent.

On the 1ſt of July, Herault, in the name of the committee of public ſafety, preſented a very long addreſs to the French nation againſt the inſurrections in different parts of the country, which loudly called for the interpoſing hand of the legiſlature. He propoſed that the following decree

ſhould

should be paſſed: 'The national convention decrees, that any perſon who ſhall print, ſell, or diſtribute any writings contrary to the ſpirit of the conſtitutional act decreed on the 24th of June, and then preſented by the convention for the acceptance of the French nation, ſhall be puniſhed with death.'

On the 5th of July, one of the ſecretaries read a letter from Marat, deſiring that a reward might be offered for the heads of all the Capet family. Breard moved the order of the day, obſerving, that if Marat had any thing to ſay, he might come and give his opinion in the aſſembly.

On the 7th of July, Drouet thus addreſſed the convention: 'There is a report in circulation without doors, that the ſon of Capet has left the Temple, and is carried about in triumph at St. Denis. Although your committee of general ſafety was convinced of the falſehood of this rumour, yet it was thought proper to appoint four commiſſioners to repair to the Temple. We found young Louis quietly playing at draughts with his Mentor. We then went into the apartment of Maria Antoniette, and found both herſelf and ſiſter in an excellent ſtate of health.—I make this obſervation, becauſe the foreign powers never ceaſe to report, that we overwhelm thoſe individuals with outrages. They themſelves confeſs that we grant them all they deſire. I move that you inſert in the minutes, not the formal contradiction of this impoſture (for it needs it none) but this new manner of calumniating the patriots.'—This was decreed.

It was, perhaps, in conſequence of this report, that the committee of public ſafety thought it expedient to ſeparate the young prince from his unfortunate mother. The following minute appears, indeed, to be the reſult. It is entitled an 'Extract from the Regiſter of the Council of the Temple, and is dated July 3.

'We, the commiſſioners on duty, entered the apartment of Maria Antoinette, to whom we notified the reſolution of the committee of public welfare of the national convention of the 1ſt of July. After many entreaties, the widow of Capet finally reſolved to deliver up to us her ſon, who has been conducted to the apartment deſigned for him by the council of the Temple, and committed to the care of citizen Simon, who received the charge. We obſerved farther, that this ſeparation was effected with all the ſenſibility that could be expected in ſuch a circumſtance, in which the magiſtrates of the people evinced all the indulgence compatible with the ſeverity of their functions.'

Certain plots and conſpiracies imputed to the impriſoned members of the convention were the motive avowed for their arreſt; and the developement of theſe plots, if any ſuch exiſted, was referred to the committee of public welfare.

[To be continued.]

CONTINENTAL ADVICES.

SWEDEN.

Stockholm, Auguſt 6.

LAST week the Ruſſian charge des affaires delivered a note on the part of his court to the chancellor, of the following import:

'The empreſs of Ruſſia has thought proper to fit out a fleet of twenty-five ſail of the line, and a proportionable number of frigates, to cruize in the Eaſt and North ſeas, for the purpoſe (in conjunction with the Engliſh maritime force) of preventing the ſending of any proviſions or ammunition to France; the empreſs therefore requeſts the king of Sweden not to permit his ſhips of war to take any Swediſh merchantmen laden with ſuch commodities under their convoy. Her Imperial majeſty has further ordered all merchant ſhips, which her ſquadron may meet in the offing, to be ſearched, to ſee if their cargoes conſiſt of any ſuch goods: all which is done for this reaſon, namely, that no neutrality can take place with reſpect to a government conſiſting only of rebels.'

A ſimilar declaration has been made on the part of the Ruſſian court to that of Denmark; beſide which, the Engliſh miniſters have delivered ſimilar declarations to the Swediſh and Daniſh courts.

POLAND.

Warſaw, July 20. The fate of Poland ſeems unchangeably fixed. On Monday, the 15th of July, the deputies held a conference with the Ruſſian ambaſſador, and delivered to him a memorial, which they requeſted him to forward to the empreſs. This he abſolutely refuſed to do; and in a note which he ſent to the diet, accompanied by miniſters, he inſiſted on the ſignature and ratification of the treaty

of alliance and commerce between Ruſſia and the republic, and that the deputies ſhould be inveſted with full powers to do the ſame.

In the ſeſſion of the ſame day (the 15th) when the note was read, the diet conſented to the prorogation of the ſeſſion till the 30th inſt. but refuſed to comply with the wiſhes of the Ruſſian ambaſſador reſpecting the treaty of alliance. This treaty, a plan of which the deputies preſented on that day to the diet, conſiſts of ten articles, and contains ſome advantages at the expence of ſome ſacrifices. The Poliſh nation may chooſe the form of government which it conceives beſt adapted to its intereſts, except that of the 3d of May 1792; but the baſis of the advantages to be granted to Poland is the complete and full ratification of the treaty of partition between the courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin, in its full extent, as was required on the 9th of April.

In conſequence of the refuſal of the diet to accede, the Ruſſian ambaſſador on the 16th ſent a note tantamount to a formal declaration of war. He ſaid in this note, that unleſs the deputies were inveſted with the authority required on the 18th, he ſhould lay the eſtates, poſſeſſions, and habitations of the members of the Diet under a military execution; and ſhould the king adhere to the oppoſite party, the royal domains would be treated in the ſame manner.

The diet, in conſequence of theſe menaces, by the advice of the king, who ſaw with grief the danger of a vain reſiſtance, at length yielded, and the reſolution was carried by a majority of 69 to 20; but a number of proteſts were entered on the occaſion: Poland muſt therefore ſubmit to its fate, amid the abſolute ſilence of all Europe.

The city of Grodno is cloſely blocked up by foreign troops, and no one can quit the city without a paſſport from the Ruſſian ambaſſador, nor even to take a walk. Count de Sievers has offered the foreign miniſters their paſſports, but the diplomatic corps have refuſed his offers, as contrary to the liberties and reſpect due to their character.

Warſaw, July 24. The alliance and partition treaty with Ruſſia was ſigned on the 22d at Grodno, without ſuffering any alteration from the firſt copy of it, preſented by M. Sievers after the firſt conference. The new notes delivered by this miniſter have alſo been preſented to all the foreign miniſters. The negotiations with the Pruſſian miniſter have begun with ſome conferences between M. Bucholtz and the delegation.

SPEECH *of the Lord Lieutenant of* Ireland, *to both Houſes of Parliament, on Friday, Auguſt* 16, 1793.

'My Lords and Gentlemen,

'THE wiſdom and firmneſs that have diſtinguiſhed your conduct during the preſent ſeſſion, and the attention you have afforded to the many important objects of your deliberations, demand my ſincere acknowledgements, and enable me to relieve you from further attendance in parliament.

'Gentlemen of the Houſe of Commons,

'I have his majeſty's commands to thank you for the liberal ſupplies you have voted for the public ſervice, and for the honourable ſupport of his majeſty's government. You may rely upon their faithful application.

'My Lords and Gentlemen,

'The wiſdom and liberality with which you attended to his majeſty's recommendation in favour of his Roman Catholic ſubjects, are highly pleaſing to the king.

'You may be fully ſenſible of his majeſty's gracious condeſcenſion in committing to your judgment the application of the hereditary revenue. And I am ordered by his majeſty to ſignify his approbation of the proviſions which have been made for the ſupport of his civil government, and the honour and dignity of his crown; and to expreſs his confidence that your liberal conceſſions to the Roman Catholics, and the meaſures for the regulation of the public expenditure, and for the limitation of offices and penſions, to which his majeſty has been graciouſly pleaſed to conſent with a view to the advantage of the public, will cement a general union of ſentiment among all claſſes of his majeſty's ſubjects in ſupport of the eſtabliſhed conſtitution.

'His majeſty has ſeen with real ſatisfaction that friendly diſpoſition which has been manifeſted by the parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland, for ſtrengthening the connection of the two kingdoms by mutual acts of conceſſions. I am authorized to acquaint you that an act has paſſed the Britiſh parliament, to permit goods of Aſia, Africa, and America, legally imported into Ireland, to be imported from thence

thence into Great Britain. This is a ſignal proof of her attention to your intereſts, while the confirmation of the charter of the Eaſt-India company by the parliament of Ireland diſplays on your part a cordial zeal for the ſupport of Great Britain, and a judicious conſideration of the great and eſſential intereſt of the empire.

'I am to make my acknowledgements for the many ſalutary laws you have enacted to ſtrengthen the executive government; which will materially tend to defeat the deſigns of the enemies to the freedom and happineſs of this kingdom.

'The apprehenſions of embarraſſment, which for a time hung over commercial tranſactions, were to me a ſubject of the utmoſt anxiety; and I am to return you many thanks for ſanctioning thoſe meaſures which I took in ſupport of credit; and which I truſt have had the happieſt effect in preventing the ill conſequences of ſuch apprehenſions.

'The ſpirit of diſcontent which prevailed among the lower claſſes of the people, at the beginning of the ſeſſion, has ſince burſt into acts of riot and inſurrection; and I have been under the painful neceſſity of employing his majeſty's forces, whoſe ſteadineſs and good conduct have on all occaſions been manifeſted, and by whoſe exertions the civil magiſtrates have been enabled in a great meaſure to reſtore the general tranquillity.

'Under all the circumſtances of the country, I thought it proper to call forth a very conſiderable portion of the militia of this kingdom. I am to expreſs his majeſty's approbation of a meaſure which affords a preſent material aſſiſtance, and lays the foundation of a permanent conſtitutional force, that has been found by experience in Great Britain of great reſource in public emergencies.

'His majeſty feels, with the greateſt concern, the expence brought upon the people by domeſtic diſturbance, added to the conſequence of a foreign war, into which we have been forced by the wanton and unprovoked aggreſſion of France; but you will reflect that you are contending for the preſervation of your property, and for the ſecurity of your happy conſtitution.

'The ſucceſſes with which it hath pleaſed the Divine Providence to bleſs the arms of his majeſty and his allies, afford the beſt proſpect of a happy iſſue to this important conteſt; and it is his majeſty's earneſt hope, that a continuance of vigorous exertions will finally obtain a ſecure and laſting peace.

'I have entire confidence, that in your reſpective counties you will exert your utmoſt influence in maintaining the public tranquillity, and in carrying the laws into full execution. You may be aſſured, that I ſhall, on all occaſions, take the moſt ſpeedy and effectual meaſures, in the exerciſe of thoſe powers with which I am inveſted, for the repreſſion of outrage and tumult, and the protection of his majeſty's faithful and loyal ſubjects.'

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

AUGUST 2.

YESTERDAY came on in the court of admiralty, Doctors-Commons, before ſir James Marriott, the important cauſe of the condemnation of the St. Jago Spaniſh Regiſter ſhip, from Lima, laden with gold and dollars, captured by the General Dumourier, a French privateer, on the 5th of April laſt, and recaptured in the bay of Biſcay, on the 14th of the ſame month, by ſir Andrew Snape Douglas, commander of his majeſty's ſhip Edgar, of 74 guns, in company with admiral Gell's ſquadron.

Sir William Scott, the advocate-general, maintained the rights of the recaptors in a long and able ſpeech. The learned Civilian inſiſted, that, according to the law of nations, when the property of a ſtate, that had been in the poſſeſſion of an enemy for 24 hours, was retaken by the ſubjects of a third country, in alliance with the former, and at war with the latter, the right of the original owners of the property was gone, and the recaptors were entitled to claim it as prize. In the preſent caſe, the ſhip St. Jago had been in the poſſeſſion of the French during nine days; therefore ſhe muſt now be conſidered as lawful prize. To ſupport this doctrine he read long extracts from Puffendorf on the law of nature and nations, and Grotius *De Jure Belli & Pacis*. He alſo contended, that as we had no treaty with Spain that related to ſuch affairs, no regulation with reſpect to ſalvage, the caſe could be determined by the law of nations only. This laſt argument was drawn from the laws of Spain themſelves, which directed, that when any of the ſubjects of that country ſhould retake a veſſel belonging to other of its ſubjects, the recaptors ſhould be entitled to the whole, provided

it had remained 24 hours in the enemy's poſſeſſion.

Sir James Marriot aſked if Spain, ſince the commencement of hoſtilities, had made any regulations on the ſubject of prizes. He was informed they had not.

Doctor Lawrence, for the defendant, begged to ſtate an important fact to the court. He was aſſured from the higheſt authority, that juſt about the day of the recapture of the Spaniſh prize, our ambaſſador at Madrid had propoſed a ſtipulation reſpecting prizes, which had been immediately acceded to; that it had been agreed on, ſent over here, and ſigned, and was actually ſent back to be ſigned at Madrid.

Sir James Marriot upon this adviſed, that as the final deciſion muſt lie with the king in council, the parties ſhould reſort there at once, or at leaſt delay proceedings till ſomething further was known reſpecting this treaty.

Dr. Lawrence conſented on the part of the original owners, that it might be poſtponed.

AUGUST 3.

A farther hearing concerning the Spaniſh Regiſter ſhip came on this day before ſir James Marriot. Dr. Lawrence was prepared to reply in behalf of the king of Spain, and the free merchants who are claimants, but the judge informed him that it was unneceſſary; becauſe as all the parties were at preſent in the dark with reſpect to the ſubſiſting treaties between England and Spain, by the force of which, as far as it bound the parties themſelves, the maritime laws of nations, whether laid down by Grotius or any other writers, had always, and ever muſt be regulated: it was impoſſible for him to pronounce any definitive anſwer whether the ſhip in queſtion is an abſolute or a ſalvage capture. He recommended it to the parties that there might be an amicable ſale of the articles which are ſtated to be periſhable, and the ſums ariſing to be veſted in the Bank. He then adjourned the further hearing to the 4th day of September next.

AUGUST 5.

On Saturday Benjamin Booth was tried at the quarter ſeſſions at Manchester, upon an indictment for ſeditious words. The jury, after a long trial, delivered their verdict of Guilty. The ſentence of the court was, 'That he be impriſoned in the caſtle of Lancaſter twelve months.'

At Warwick aſſizes, Richard Peart and William Belcher, were convicted on an indictment for ſelling the Addreſs to the Addreſſers; Belcher was alſo indicted for ſelling the Second Part of the Rights of Man, and the Jockey Club; but the counſel for the crown, underſtanding the defendant to have erred more through ignorance than from any bad deſign, declined giving evidence on thoſe indictments, and he was acquitted. They were bookſellers in Birmingham. They both tendered affidavits to the court reſpecting their circumſtances, and contrition for their offences. The court on conſideration paſſed a ſentence of three months impriſonment on each of the defendants, and directed that they ſhould reſpectively find ſureties for their good behaviour for two years, themſelves in 100l. each, and two ſureties in 50l. each.

AUGUST 6.

Yeſterday, the two following malefactors, who were convicted at the laſt Croydon aſſizes, were brought for execution out of the New Goal, in the Borough, viz. Robert Walpole Chamberlaine, for robbing Mr. and Mrs. Bellamy, ſo long ago as on the 6th of June 1791, on the Epſom road, and cutting Mr. Bellamy ſo dreadfully that he will remain lame during his life: and George Vernon, for feloniouſly counterfeiting the ſilver coin of this realm, called ſhillings and ſixpences.

AUGUST 10.

On Tueſday laſt came on at Bridgewater aſſizes, for the county of Somerſet, before Mr. juſtice Heath and a ſpecial jury, the trial of the Meſſrs. Robinſons, wholeſale bookſellers in Pater-noſter-row, for ſelling the Second Part of 'Paine's Rights of Man'—The ſale in queſtion was of three copies of this pamphlet, ſent to Mr. Pyle, bookſeller, at Norton Fitzwarren, near Taunton, in conſequence of his order for them.—The neceſſary evidence having been adduced, Mr. Bond entered on a moſt animated, forcible, and energetic defence of the Meſſrs. Robinſons, who, he ſaid, declined calling any witneſſes, and reſted their cauſe upon their not wilfully or intentionally ſowing ſedition, but merely ſelling a pamphlet in the courſe of their buſineſs, which was then in general ſale. The jury, after going out of court for a few minutes, returned, and declared the defendants to be all guilty.

Mr. Holt, the printer of the Newark Herald, has been convicted at Nottingham aſſizes, for ſelling Paine's Addreſs to the Addreſſers, and reprinting and publiſhing an Addreſs to the Manufacturers, &c. of unrepreſented towns on a Parliamentary Reform.

AUGUST 15.

Whitehall, Auguſt 13.

Extract of a Letter from the Hon. Major-general Bruce, Commander in Chief of his Majeſty's Forces in the Weſt Indies, to the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, one of his Majeſty's Principal Secretaries of State; dated at Sea, off Martinico, June 23, 1793. Received Auguſt 12.

SIR,

In my letter of the 25th of May I had the honour to acquaint you, that I waited for the report that colonel Myers ſhould bring from Martinico before I came to a final determination reſpecting the expedition againſt that iſland. He returned the 31ſt ultimo, and the information he brought was, that the planters had expreſſed great confidence if we would come down immediately, though only with a very ſmall force; and on the 6th of this month a deputation arrived here from the committee *intermediaire*, with a very earneſt requeſt for aſſiſtance, ſtating, that they were then in poſſeſſion of ſome very important poſts, and that our appearance, with a force even not exceeding 800 men, would encourage a great number of the royaliſts to declare themſelves, who only waited the arrival of the Engliſh for this purpoſe.

Theſe repreſentations induced me to undertake the expedition; and the admiral, who has uniformly complied with every requeſt that I have made him for forwarding the ſervice in which we are engaged, had previouſly conſented to receive on board the fleet ſuch part of the troops as he could conveniently carry, and by this means ſave a great expence in tranſports.

They embarked accordingly on the 10th, and arrived off Caze Navire on the 11th. The officer who commanded the royaliſts immediately propoſed an attack upon the town of St. Pierre, which he ſaid we could eaſily make ourſelves maſters of, and that the influence of the merchants there was ſuch as would procure the ſubmiſſion of the reſt of the iſland, Fort Bourbon alone excepted, and that there was even a probability that this place would very ſoon ſurrender for want of proviſions.

The French engineers were all confident in the ſucceſs of this plan: willing, therefore, to ſhew how ready I was in the ſupport of their cauſe, I ordered the 21ſt regiment to land on the 14th at Caze Navire, and there take poſt, which enabled the officer who commanded the royaliſts to collect all his force in the neighbourhood of St. Pierre: he accordingly moved, and I landed the reſt of our forces on the 16th, and joined him at a very ſtrong poſt within about five miles of St. Pierre.

The Britiſh troops conſiſted of the grenadiers, light infantry, and marines from the fleet, with the Carolina black corps, amounting in all to about 1100 men: the corps of royaliſts was ſaid to be about 800. This force was thought to be perfectly adequate to the ſervice propoſed. We were retarded in our operations by the difficulty of bringing up the ſix pounders to their ſtations, where they did not arrive till the 17th in the afternoon, when the enemy made an attack upon one of them, but were very ſoon driven back by the picquets of the light infantry; but, I am ſorry to ſay, with the loſs of captain Dunlop, and three men of the royal Americans.

The plan we had concerted was the attack of two batteries which defended St. Pierre, the taking of which would immediately put us in poſſeſſion of that town.

The morning of the 18th was the time fixed, and we were to move forward in two columns, the one conſiſting of the Britiſh troops, the other of the royaliſts; for this purpoſe the troops were put in motion before day-break; but unfortunately ſome alarm having taken place among the royaliſts, they began, in a miſtake, firing on one another; and their commander being ſeverely wounded on the occaſion, his troops were immediately diſconcerted, would not ſubmit to the controul of any of the other officers, and inſtantly retired to the poſt from which they had marched.

This conduct ſtrongly proved that no dependance could be placed on them, and the attack againſt St. Pierre muſt ſolely have been carried on by the Britiſh troops, to which their numbers were not equal; and as they luckily were not engaged with the enemy, they were ordered immediately to return to their former poſt, from whence they embarked on the 19th; and the 21ſt regiment likewiſe embarked from their poſt on the 22d, the navy, as uſual, giving the moſt ready aſſiſtance.

As the royaliſts would certainly fall ſacrifices to the implacable malignity of the republican party as ſoon as we quitted the iſland, it became in a manner incumbent on us, in ſupport of the national character, to uſe our utmoſt exertions to bring theſe unhappy people from the ſhore; and although the neceſſity of impreſſing

ſuch veſſels as could be found, and the purchaſing proviſions from the merchant veſſels attending the army, will incur a great expence, I have ventured upon it, truſting to the generous and humane diſpoſition exhibited by the nation on all ſimilar occaſions, and being perfectly aſſured of finding in you an advocate for reſcuing ſo many unfortunate perſons from certain death.

We therefore were employed in embarking theſe people from the 19th to the 21ſt. Beſides whites, there were a number of blacks, whoſe ſituation were equally perilous: I have diſtributed them among the iſlands in the beſt manner that the ſhortneſs of our time would admit.

I have the honour to be, &c.

T. BRUCE.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

AUGUST 16.

Wedneſday the Sierra Leone's company's ſhip Amy arrived at Spithead with a cargo of African produce, conſiſting chiefly of camwood, ivory, gum, pepper, hides, and bees-wax. She alſo brings ſome paſſengers. The diſpatches, which are dated the 14th of June, mention, that the rains had ſet in ſeveral weeks before, but that the colony continued to be in very good health. The coloniſts were all put in poſſeſſion of ſmall lots of land, and a new town, on a more regular and extended ſcale, was begun to be built. Between 200 and 300 Nova Scotians were uſually at work for the company, and a large party of natives continued to work at the plantation begun by the company on the oppoſite ſide of the river, where the ſoil proves extremely fruitful, and the experiments in ſugar, cotton, &c. appeared to be very promiſing. The native chiefs and people continued to be extremely friendly, and ſome of them, on the occaſion of ſome veſſels appearing which were miſtaken for French privateers, came down to offer their aſſiſtance in protecting the colony. The company's ſchools are regularly attended by 300 children, among whom there are ſome children of the natives.

AUGUST 22.

The following account has been received at the Eaſt India Houſe, from captain Hartwell, of his majeſty's ſhip Thetis;

An Account of the unfortunate Loſs of the Hon. Company's Ship Winterton, GEORGE DUNDAS late Commander, brought to St. Helena the 15th of June, by an American Brig from the Iſle of France.

Thomas de Souza, paſſenger, arrived at the Iſle of France, April 16, 1793.

The ſhip ſtruck at two o'clock in the morning, Auguſt 20, 1792. At four o'clock, having hove the guns and part of the cargo overboard, they cut away her maſts. At day-light, being but ſeven miles from the main land, the yawl was ſent on ſhore for aſſiſtance. In the night of the 20th, the long-boat cutter, and jolly-boat, were ſtove to pieces by the immenſe ſea, which repeatedly broke over the ſhip. On the 21ſt, the ſea continuing, and perceiving the yawl returning from the ſhore, captain Dundas hoiſted ſignals, ordering her not to come along-ſide, which ſhe obeyed, and again returned to the ſhore. On the 22d, at ſix o'clock in the morning, captain Dundas perceiving the ſhip to be ſeparating, fixed the ladies on the top of the poop, with proviſions, &c.; the reſt of the paſſengers and people took their ſtations in the mizen-chains, &c. when he ordered the poop to be cut away; this ſaved their lives. At nine o'clock the ſhip divided into four pieces, when captain Dundas, Mr. Chalmers, &c. were drowned. Mr. Dale, Mr. de Souza, and the fourth mate, with four ſeamen, went into the yawl to Defel, from thence to Moſambique, when they procured a veſſel to fetch the ladies, &c. from Madagaſcar to the Iſle of France. It is expected they may be here in May.

Winterton loſt at Madagaſcar, 20th Auguſt, 1792, lat. 23. 50. S. and afterwards we went to St. Auguſtine's bay, about four days march.

Paſſengers loſt.—Captain Dundas, Mr. Chalmers, firſt mate; Miſs M'Gowan, Miſs Cullen, Miſs Robinſon, and 40 men.

Paſſengers ſaved.—Mrs. Cullen, Miſs Mary Cullen, Miſs Lyne, Miſs Bailey, Miſs Briſtow, Mrs. Bellas, Mr. Dunn, purſer; Mr. Spens, ſecond mate; Mr. Dale, third mate; Miſs M. Briſtow, fifth and ſixth mates, and the midſhipmen; lieut. Brownrig, Mr. Hamilton, writer, Bengal; Mr. Hamilton, ditto, Madras; Mr. Gowan, cadet; Mr. Gordon, ditto; Mr. Lyn, ditto; hon. Mr. Ramſay, Mr. Buchanan, Mr. Collier, F. M.; Mr. Thompſon, Mr. Silk, Dr. Lilly.

F. J. HARTWELL.

By a liſt received at the Eaſt India Houſe from Mr. John Dale, third mate of the Winterton, in a letter from Moſambique, dated 20th February 1793, the following have been ſaved from the wreck; Ship's company 87, king's troops 99, company's recruits 3, ſoldiers' wives 7, paſſengers 32.—Total 228.

AUGUST 26.

Whitehall, Aug. 24. Extract of a letter from sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highness the duke of York, to Mr. secretary Dundas, dated Ypres, August 20, 1793.

Field-marshal Freytag halted last night at Vlacmeringhue: his advanced guard at Poperinghen. He marched this evening with the intention of passing the Yser at day-break, and attacked the enemy's posts at Rexpode and Hondshotte. The former is said to consist of about 800 men. The field-marshal has communicated to his royal highness the dispositions which he has made for this purpose, and they offer every prospect of success.

Postscript, dated Furnes, August 21, 1793. As the army was approaching Ostend, I kept my letter till this day, in hopes of being able to give some account of marshal Freytag's operations. His royal highness has just received information that he has defeated the enemy at Oost Capelle, Rexmode, and Hondschoote. He has taken eleven pieces of cannon, and 200 prisoners, and killed about the same number of men. The pursuit was continued to within a small distance of Berg.

There are on our side about forty killed and wounded.—*Lond. Gaz.*

AUGUST 28.

Whitehall, Aug. 27. The dispatch, of which the following is an extract, was this morning received at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Camp near Dunkirk, Aug. 24, 1793.

Sir,

I have the honour to inform you, that his royal highness marched from Furnes, upon the evening of the 22d, with the besieging army, in order to attack the camp of Ghivelde and approach the town of Dunkirk. He advanced in three columns, the cavalry along the strand, a column of infantry upon the road which leads by the canal directly upon Ghivelde, and a third to the left. The advanced posts of the enemy were driven back, with the loss of two or three men wounded; and night coming on, the enemy halted within a short distance of the village of Ghivelde. The enemy abandoned their camp in the night; they afterward quitted a redoubt in which they left four iron guns, and the army took up its ground within a league of the town. There was a great deal of firing in the evening at the advancing posts in the gardens and enclosures, which are in front of the camp and upon the Dunes, in which the regiment of Starray and O'Donnel, (Austrian) have had upward of fifty men killed and wounded; the enemy were driven back, and this morning every thing is quiet. The army will this day approach nearer to the town, and take up the ground which it is to occupy during the siege.

The enemy have made an opening in the dyke of the canal between Dunkirk and Bergues, by which means they can inundate a great part of the country from the sea. The inundation made considerable progress yesterday, but it made little in the night.

I am happy to inform you that field-marshal Freytag has taken two of the enemy's posts, with four pieces of cannon, and sixty prisoners, with very little loss.

It is not in my power to give a more detailed account of the successes of this army. The field-marshal will transmit an account of his operations as soon as his other important occupations will permit.

It is said that the enemy are sending considerable reinforcements from Lisle to the camp at Cassel. I have the honour to be, &c.

JAMES MURRAY.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary.

Wednesday, Aug. 28. The following dispatch was this morning received from colonel sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highness the duke of York, at the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Lefferinck's Hocke, Aug. 26, 1793.

Sir,

I have the honour to inform you, that his royal highness intended upon the 24th, to attack the enemy, who were still posted at some distance from Dunkirk, in order to get possession of the ground which it was necessary to occupy previous to the siege. They hastened the execution of his design by attacking the out-posts between the canal of Furnes and the sea. Lieutenant-general Dalton advanced with the reserve, which was encamped upon that side, to their support. The enemy were repulsed, and driven with loss, into the town. One piece of cannon, and a few prisoners were taken. The ardour of the troops carried them farther in the pursuit than

than was intended, ſo that they came under the cannon of the place, by which means a conſiderable loſs has been ſuſtained. This was likelier to happen, and more difficult to be prevented, from the nature of the country, which is covered with trees and ſtrong incloſures.

Lieutenant-general Dalton was killed, with a cannon ſhot toward the concluſion of the attack. The loſs of this excellent officer muſt be ſeverely felt. The courage and ability, which he has diſplayed in the courſe of many campaigns, raiſed him to the higheſt rank of eſtimation in the army in which he ſerved.

His royal highneſs has likewiſe to lament that of colonel Eld, of the Coldſtream regiment, and of other valuable men. The troops behaved with their uſual courage. The two Britiſh battalions which were engaged were commanded by colonel Liegh and major Mathews, and the grenadier battalion of the Heſſians by lieutenant-colonel Wurmb. His royal highneſs is particularly ſenſible of the exertions of major-general Abercromby and major-general Verneck, who were with the advanced guard, as likewiſe of thoſe of lieutenant-general Wurmb.

The army have taken up the ground which his royal highneſs intended they ſhould occupy: the advanced poſts within a ſhort diſtance of the town. I have the honour to be, &c.

JAMES MURRAY.

P. S. In the hurry of making up the laſt diſpatch, the names of the two poſts taken by field-marſhal Freytag, and of the bridge, could not be inſerted. Thoſe of the former are Warmarthe and Eckelſbech, and the latter Lefferinck's Hocke.

The return of the Auſtrian killed and wounded has not yet been received, but is ſuppoſed to be about 170 men.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

By the return of the killed, wounded, &c.

Total. 1 captain, 1 ſerjeant, 16 rank and file, killed; 2 lieutenants, 57 rank and file, wounded; 1 ditto miſſing.

Heſſians. 1 captain, 2 lieutenants, 13 rank and file, killed; 1 lieutenant-colonel, 2 lieutenants, 36 rank and file, wounded.

Names of Officers, killed and wounded.

Firſt regiment of foot guards. Captain Williams, wounded.

Coldſtream. Lieutenant-colonel Eld, killed.

Royal Artillery. Lieutenant Wilſon, wounded.

PREFERMENTS.

REV. Thomas Hughes, M. A.—Prebendary of Weſtminſter.

Rev. Charles Peter Layard, D. D.—Prebendary of Worceſter.

Rev. Samuel Alford, M. A.—Dean of St. Burian.

PROMOTIONS.

RIGHT hon. ſir Richard Worſley, bart.—Reſident at Venice.

Edward Milward, jun. eſq.—Comptroller of exciſe.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

JULY 27.

GEorge Smith, and John Curre, of Chepſtow, in Monmouthſhire, bankers.

Thomas Greatrex, of Birmingham, dealer.

William Gardiner, of Oldſwinford, in Worceſterſhire, nail-ironmonger.

William Smith, of Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, tobacconiſt.

Benjamin Lapworth, of Coventry, ribbon-weaver.

Anneſley Shee, of St. James'-place, St. James'-ſtreet, wine-merchant.

James Robinſon the younger, of Mild-end-road, inſurance-broker.

Walter Tyler, of Ironmonger-lane, Cheapſide, laceman.

Thomas Triquet, of Bread-ſtreet, warehouſeman.

William Maſlin, of Briſtol, mariner.

Joſhua Blakeway, of Shrewſbury, woollen-draper.

JULY 30.

Francis Oakley, of Hereford, woolſtapler.

Hector M'Lean, of the New Road, Middleſex, ſurgeon.

Roger Teſchemaker, and Robert Bakewell, of Nottingham, hoſiers.

George Hamnett Sturmy, of Leadenhall-ſtreet, ſtationer.

Richard Simons, of the pariſh of St. George, Surry, tallow-chandler.

Jonathan Naſh, of Briſtol, hooper.

Lancelot Smith, of Carliſle, ſtationer.

Jeremiah Owen, of Ludlow, Salop, ſtationer.

William Neale, of Audlem, Cheſhire, hoſier.

Robert Haxell, of Graveſend, Kent, miller.

John Roberts, of Tiverton, in Devonſhire, mercer.

AUGUST 3.

Richard Ricketts, of Ratcliffe-highway, haberdaſher.

Thomas

Thomas Turner, of Honington, in Suffolk, ſeedſman.

Arthur White, of Burr-ſtreet, Wapping, liquor-merchant.

John Morgan, of Bunhill-row, money-ſcrivener.

William Savage, of Holborn, grocer.

John Blanning, of Briſtol, carpenter.

Benjamin Beavitt, of Warwick-lane, victualler.

Robert Lever, of Manchester, innkeeper.

William Stoakes, of St. John's-ſtreet, Clerkenwell, painter.

Thomas Jenkin, of Sutton St. Mary, Lincolnſhire, horſe-dealer.

John Stead, of Great Knight-rider-ſtreet, Doctor's-commons, taylor.

John Lucas, of Hitchen, in Hertfordſhire, draper.

AUGUST 6.

Thomas Green, of Wakefield, Yorkſhire, liquor-merchant.

John Watchorn the younger, of Leiceſter, linen-draper.

John Parkinſon the younger, of Chorley, in Lancaſhire, cotton-ſpinner.

Joſeph Rock, of Birmingham, plater.

Samuel Baker, of Tabernacle-ſquare, Shoreditch, brickmaker.

James Horſley, of Fazely, Tamworth, Staffordſhire, coal-merchant.

James Templeman, of New Sarum, Wilts, gunſmith.

Joſeph Grimes, of Hommerton, Middleſex, coachmaſter.

John Bennet, of St. Helen, Worceſter, mercer.

John Hall, of Queen-ſtreet, Cheapſide, woollen-draper.

Richard Barry, of Eſſex-ſtreet, Strand, taylor.

AUGUST 10.

James Page, of Liverpool, liquor-merchant.

James Page, and Robert Bennett, of Liverpool, liquor-merchants.

Thomas Peel, of Louth, in Lincolnſhire, ſtuff-manufacturer.

Robert Dodge, of Stockport, Cheſhire, joiner.

John Woodward, of Scawby, in Lincolnſhire, leather-dreſſer.

John Blore, William Blore, and Rowland Blore, of Park-lane, Piccadilly, builders.

Richard Akers, of Wigmore-ſtreet, St. Mary-le-bonne, taylor.

John Hartley, of Lothbury, merchant.

Benjamin Stroud, of Counter-ſtreet, Southwark, liquor-merchant.

William I'Anſon, of Pontefract, in Yorkſhire, brandy-merchant.

William Croſbie the younger, and John Greenwood, of Liverpool, merchants.

Samuel Biſhop, of Great Newport-ſtreet, Soho, ſtationer.

Thomas Leigh, of Manchester, butcher.

AUGUST 13.

Thomas Binham, of the Strand, hoſier.

Thomas Abbott, of Bath, builder.

Daniel Hatton, of Aſhby-de-la-Zouch, in Leiceſterſhire, grocer.

Joſeph Snape, of Shelton, in Staffordſhire, baker.

Thomas Roſe, of Lenham, in Kent, linen-draper.

Anthony Williams, of Belper, Derbyſhire, ſhopkeeper.

George Elliot, and David Young the elder, of St. John, Wapping, braſiers.

John Hurley, of St. James's-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, glaſs-manufacturer.

Henry Richards, of the Strand, glover.

Joſeph Timbrell, of Lanſdown-place, Somerſetſhire, builder.

AUGUST 17.

Edward Dyer, of Braintree, in Eſſex, hatter.

Richard Wilkinſon, of Whalley, in Lancaſhire, grocer.

Iſaac Dale, of Exeter, chinaman.

John Watſon, of Sparrow-corner, near the Minories, oilman.

Joſeph Hawkins, of Birmingham, woollen-draper.

William Wilſon, of Vine-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, carpenter.

John Henſhaw, of Nottingham, tanner.

Edward Shove, of Botolph-lane, London, orange-merchant.

James Downey, of South Shields, in Durham, mercer.

Henry Morland, of Chapel-ſtreet, Lamb's Conduit-ſtreet, wine-merchant.

AUGUST 20.

William Carpenter, of Tenterden, in Kent, ironmonger.

Lyon Joſeph, of Manſel-ſtreet, Goodman's fields, merchant.

John Viel and Matthew Viel, of Bathwick, in Somerſetſhire, cabinet-makers.

John Birchall, of Woore, in Salop, dealer in ſalt.

AUGUST 24.

Thomas Capes, of Barton upon Humber, in Lincolnſhire, corn-factor.

John Illingworth, of Wrentham, in Suffolk, vintner.

Abraham Devonſhire the younger, of Adderbury, in Oxfordſhire, woolcomber.

John Wheeler, of High-ſtreet, in the Borough of Southwark, woollen-draper.

Thomas

Thomas Withington, of Manchester, fustian-manufacturer.

William Bayley, of Ramsgate, Kent, taylor.

AUGUST 27.

George Greaves, of Vine-street, Middlesex, taylor.

Edward Parker, of Stevenage, Herts, dealer.

Matthew Danson, of Gravesend, in Kent, taylor.

Henry Allum, of Cadman's-gardens, Middlesex, victualler.

Thomas Mather, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, grocer.

John Mathews, of Liverpool, merchant.

William Lovell, of Battersea, in Surry, brick-maker.

Christopher Hill, of Shrewsbury, Salop, vintner.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

MACKAY's Treatise on finding the Longitude at Sea, 8vo. 12s. boards.

Topham's System on several Diseases incident to Cattle, 8vo. 6s.

Earl's Observations on the Operation for the Stone, 8vo. 4s. sewed.

Bromley's Catalogue of engraved British Portraits, 4to. 1l. 4s.

Lady Manners' Poems, large 8vo. 1l. 1s.

Robinson's (Mary) Three Poems, 4to. 3s. 6d.

Maxims of Gallantry, 8vo. 6s.

D'Arcy, a Novel, 3s. 6d.

Letters on the Concert of Princes, 8vo. 6s.

Account of the political and moral Acts of the Kings and Queens of England, 8vo. 6s.

Treatise on Callico Printing, 2 vol. 12mo. 7s.

Miscellaneous Amusements, 12mo. 3s.

Knights of the Rose, 12mo. 3s. 6d.

Anti-halycon, and other Poems, 8vo. 3s. sewed.

Porter's Defence of Unitarianism, 3s. 6d.

Rawlins' Dissertation on the Obstetric Forceps, 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed.

Memoirs of the Manchester Society, vol. 4, part 1, 5s. boards.

Kyd's Treatise on the Law of Corporations, 8vo. 3s. 6d. boards.

Wright's Lady's Miscellany, 12mo. 3s.

Wright's Pleasing Melancholy, or Walk among the Tombs, 12mo. 3s.

Letters from France, vol. 3, 4, 12mo. 6s. sewed.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

August 17, 1793.

By the Standard Winchester Quarter of Eight Bushels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middlesex	46	10	28	6	28	11	24	12
Surry	47	3	32	0	31	0	26	2
Hertford	45	0	—	—	29	0	23	2
Bedford	44	10	—	—	—	—	23	9
Huntingdon	43	7	—	—	—	—	21	0
Northampton	47	4	29	6	31	8	21	10
Rutland	50	0	—	—	—	—	22	0
Leicester	51	10	—	—	36	8	27	2
Nottingham	55	3	38	4	38	6	25	6
Derby	56	8	—	—	—	—	27	6
Stafford	54	6	—	—	37	6	26	6
Salop	52	8	30	4	39	6	28	6
Hereford	50	0	41	4	31	8	28	4
Worcester	50	2	—	—	37	6	26	0
Warwick	52	8	—	—	—	—	27	0
Wilts	44	4	—	—	28	9	25	8
Berks	44	8	—	—	27	3	25	7
Oxford	49	0	—	—	27	6	24	10
Bucks	44	4	—	—	32	8	26	3
Brecon	59	1	44	10	34	4	24	0
Montgomery	55	0	—	—	27	0	25	4
Radnor	50	1	—	—	32	0	27	3

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Essex	47	0	32	0	33	0	23	6
Kent	44	6	—	—	27	11	23	8
Sussex	44	10	—	—	—	—	23	0
Suffolk	45	9	27	5	29	9	21	10
Cambridge	41	3	24	0	—	—	19	7
Norfolk	43	8	—	—	26	0	—	—
Lincoln	48	8	35	0	—	—	19	8
York	44	7	34	5	—	—	22	7
Durham	54	6	—	—	—	—	28	4
Northumberland	46	6	31	9	30	9	23	8
Cumberland	54	2	43	10	37	11	24	11
Westmorland	57	7	46	0	36	0	26	4
Lancaster	53	8	—	—	—	—	23	10
Chester	53	3	39	9	—	—	31	3
Flint	52	7	—	—	41	7	—	—
Denbigh	55	9	40	10	38	4	24	0
Anglesea	52	0	—	—	32	0	16	0
Carnarvon	54	8	43	0	31	8	19	12
Merioneth	58	6	47	9	—	—	24	0
Cardigan	60	8	38	0	36	4	—	—
Pembroke	48	0	—	—	33	1	—	—
Carmarthen	55	2	—	—	36	8	—	—
Glamorgan	59	5	—	—	39	0	31	6
Gloucester	49	6	—	—	31	8	27	0
Somerset	50	8	—	—	35	8	22	8
Monmouth	52	11	—	—	—	—	—	—
Devon	54	4	—	—	24	8	19	0
Cornwall	55	10	—	—	26	6	19	1
Dorset	48	2	—	—	—	—	22	0
Hants	45	5	—	—	—	—	24	6

Peck Loaf, 2s. 6d.

☞ The Births, Marriages, and Deaths, are obliged to be postponed.

PRICES of STOCKS, from JULY 29, to AUGUST 28, 1793, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

1793	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans.	Short Ans.	India Stock.	India Ans.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English Lot.	English Tic.
29	176 ¾	78 ⅛	77⅛a⅜	93 ⅛	109 ⅜	22 ⅜	10 ⅛	210	77 ½		83 ½			7⅛dif.	14 1 0	
30	177	78 ⅛	77⅛a⅜	93 ⅛	109 ½	22 ⅜	10 ⅛	210 ¼		10s.dif.			77 ¼	7 ⅛	14 0 6	
31	177 ⅛	78 ⅛	77⅛a¼	94 ⅛	110	22 ⅜	10 ⅛	210 ¼		12		78 ⅛		7 ⅛	14 1 0	
1	177 ⅛	78 ¼	77⅛a½	94 ⅛	110	22 ⅜	10 ⅛	210 ½		13		78 ⅛		7 ⅛		
2	178	78 ¼	77⅛a78⅛	94 ¼	109 ¾	22 ⅜	10 ¼	211		16	85	78 ¼		7 ⅛	14 1 0	
3	178	79	78a⅛	94 ¼	110	22 ⅜		211 ¼						7 ⅛	14 2 0	
5	179 ¼	79	78⅛a⅜		109 ⅞	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	211 ¼		16		79		7 ⅛	14 3 0	
6	180	79	78⅛a78	95	109 ⅛	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	211 ½		16			78 ¼	7 ⅛	14 2 6	
7	178 ¾	78 ⅛	77⅞a⅛	94 ⅛	109 ⅛	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	210 ¾		16		78 ⅛		7 ⅛	14 1 6	
8	178 ⅛	78 ⅛	77⅛a⅜	94 ⅜	109	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	210 ¾		16			77 ½	7 ⅛		
9	177 ⅞	77 ⅞	77⅛a77	94 ¼	108 ⅞	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	210 ¼		17		78 ¼		7 ⅛	14 1 6	
10	177 ⅝	77 ⅞	77⅛a77	94 ¼	108 ⅝	22 ⅜		210 ¼						7 ⅛		
12																
13	176 ¾	77 ⅛	76⅝a⅞	94	108 ⅛	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	210		17	83 ½		76 ⅛	8	14 1 6	
14	177 ¼	77 ⅛	76⅝a77⅛	94 ⅛	108 ⅛	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	210 ¼			83	78	76 ⅛	8 ⅛	14 1 6	
15	178	78 ⅛	77⅛a⅜	94 ¼	108 ⅛	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	211		17		78 ⅛	77 ⅛	8 ⅛	14 1 6	
16	178	78 ⅛	77⅛a⅜	94 ⅜	108 ⅛	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	210 ¼		17	83 ¼	78	77 ⅛	8 ⅛	14 1 6	
17	177 ¼	78	77⅛a⅜	94 ¼	108 ⅛	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	210		17		77 ⅞		8 ⅛		
19	177 ⅜	77 ¼	77⅛a77	94 ⅛	108 ⅛	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	210 ¼		15				8 ⅛		
20		78	77⅛a77	94	108 ⅛	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	210 ¼		12			77	8 ⅛		
21	176	77 ¼	76⅞a⅛	93 ¼	107 ⅞	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	210						8 ⅛	14 1 0	
22	176 ¼	77 ⅛	76⅝a¼	93 ⅛	107 ⅞	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	209					76 ⅛	8 ¼		
23	175 ¾	77 ¼	76⅝a⅛	93	107 ½	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	208 ¼		8		77		9	14 1 0	
24																
26		77 ⅛	76⅛a¼	93 ⅛	107 ¼	22 ⅜	10 ⅜	208 ⅛		8	83			9 ⅛	14 1 0	
27	175	77	76⅛a75⅝	93	107 ¼	22 ⅜		208						9 ⅛	14 1 0	
28	174	76 ⅛	75⅝a76	92 ⅞	107 ¼	22 ⅛	10 ⅜			7				9 ⅛		

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a sixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

JOHN DE LA BRUYERE

MEMOIRS *of the* LIFE *and* WRITINGS *of M. de la* BRUYERE: *With a fine Portrait of that celebrated Author.*

JOHN de la BRUYERE, one of thoſe celebrated perſons whoſe writings attract univerſal admiration, while their lives paſs on in one uniform tenour, without incident and without adventure, was born in a village of France, near the town of Dourdan, in that part of the late province of the Iſle of France, which is now denominated the department of the Seine and Oiſe. Of his education, or of his youthful manners, we have no information. His firſt ſituation appears to have been at Caen, in the province of Normandy, where he had an office in the collection of the revenue. His literary talents, however, became ſoon too conſpicuous, to permit him to remain long in a ſituation ſo little correſponding with the expanding and elevating views of genius. The illuſtrious Boſſuet appointed him to attend one of the royal children of France, to inſtruct him in hiſtory, with a penſion of a thouſand crowns a year. With this he might be conſidered, at that period, and in that country, as in a ſtate of affluence; and the literary diſtinctions, then the moſt courted by aſpiring minds, were not withheld from him; for, in the year 1693, he was elected, by the expreſs command of Lewis the fourteenth, one of the forty members of the French Academy. But he did not long enjoy that affluence which afforded him leiſure to cultivate the fields of literature, nor the diſtinctions which he ſo well merited, and which were accompanied by the univerſal admiration of his countrymen, and indeed of all Europe. An apoplectic fit removed him from this tranſitory ſcene, in the year 1696, and in the fifty-third of his age.

M. de la Bruyere was an ingenious philoſopher, devoid of all ambition, content to enjoy in tranquillity his friends and his books, and ſelecting both with judgment. Pleaſure he neither ſought, nor endeavoured to avoid. Ever diſpoſed to the indulgence of a modeſt and placid joy, with a happy talent of exciting it, he was polite in his manners, and wiſe in his converſation; an enemy to every kind of affectation, and even to that of diſplaying the brilliancy of wit. The work by which he was diſtinguiſhed was 'The Characters of Theophraſtus, tranſlated from the Greek, with the Manners of the preſent Age.'—'Theſe Characters,' ſays Voltaire, 'may be juſtly ranked among the extraordinary productions of the age. Antiquity furniſhes no examples of ſuch a work. A rapid, conciſe, and nervous ſtyle; animated and picturesque expreſſions; a uſe of language altogether new, without offending againſt its eſtabliſhed rules, ſtruck the public at firſt; and the alluſions to living perſons, which are crowded in almoſt every page, completed its ſucceſs. When the author ſhowed his work in manuſcript to Maleſieux, the latter told him, that the book would have many readers, and its author many enemies. It ſomewhat ſunk in the opinion of men, when that whole generation, whoſe follies it attacked, were paſſed away; yet, as it contains many things applicable to all times and places, it is more than probable that it will never be forgotten.'

As a ſpecimen of our author's manner, we ſhall preſent our readers with his character of an Abſent Man, in which he diſplays a great deal of humour, puſhed on to an agreeable extravagance.

The ABSENT MAN.

'Menalcas comes down in a morning, opens his door to go out, but ſhuts it again, becauſe he perceives that he has his night-cap on; and examining himſelf further, finds that he is but half-ſhaved, that he has ſtuck

his ſword on his right ſide, that his ſtockings are about his heels, and that his ſhirt is over his breeches. When he is dreſſed, he goes to court, comes into the drawing-room, and walking bolt-upright under a branch of candleſticks, his wig is caught up by one of them, and hangs dangling in the air. All the courtiers fall a laughing, but Menalcas laughs louder than the company. Coming down to the court-gate he finds a coach, which taking for his own, he whips into it; and the coachman drives off, not doubting but he carries his maſter. As ſoon as he ſtops, Menalcas throws himſelf out of the coach, croſſes the court, aſcends the ſtaircaſe, and runs through all the chambers with the greateſt familiarity, repoſes himſelf on a couch, and fancies himſelf at home. The maſter of the houſe at laſt comes in, Menalcas riſes to receive him, and deſires him to ſit down: he talks, muſes, and then talks again. The gentleman of the houſe is tired and amazed: Menalcas is not leſs ſo, but is every moment in hopes that his impertinent gueſt will at laſt end his tedious viſit. Night comes on, when Menalcas is hardly undeceived.

'When he is playing at backgammon, he calls for a full glaſs of wine and water: it is his turn to throw, he has his box in one hand and his glaſs in the other, and being extremely dry, and unwilling to loſe time, he ſwallows down both the dice, and at the ſame time throws his wine into the tables. He writes a letter, and flings the ſand into the ink-bottle: he writes a ſecond, and miſtakes the ſuperſcription. A nobleman receives one of them, and upon opening it reads as follows: 'I would have you, honeſt Jack, immediately upon the receipt of this, take in hay enough to ſerve me the winter.' His farmer receives the other, and is amazed to ſee in it, 'My lord, I received your Grace's commands with the moſt entire ſubmiſſion to'—If he is at an entertainment, you may ſee the pieces of bread continually multiplying about his plate: it is true, the reſt of the company want it, as well as their knives and forks, which Menalcas does not let them keep long. Sometimes, in a morning, he puts his whole family in a hurry, and at laſt goes out without being able to ſtay for his coach and dinner, and for that day you may ſee him in every part of the town, except the very place where he had appointed to be on buſineſs of importance. You would often take him for every thing that he is not; for a fellow quite ſtupid, for he hears nothing; for a fool, for he talks to himſelf, and has a hundred grimaces and motions in his head, which are altogether involuntary; for a proud man, for he looks full upon you, and takes no notice of your ſaluting him. The truth of it is, his eyes are open, but he makes no uſe of them, and neither ſees you, nor any man, nor any thing elſe. He came once from his country-houſe, and his own footmen undertook to rob him, and ſucceeded. They held a flambeau to his throat, and bid him deliver his purſe; he did ſo, and coming home, told his friends he had been robbed: they deſired to know the particulars, 'Aſk my ſervants,' ſays Menalcas, 'for they were with me.'

In another of his characters, M. de la Bruyere deſcribes the French, as if ſpeaking of a people not yet diſcovered, in the air and ſtyle of a traveller: 'I have heard talk of a country,' ſays he, 'where the old men are gallant, polite, and civil: the young men, on the contrary, ſtubborn, wild, without either manners or civility. They are free from paſſion for women at that age, when, in other countries, they begin to feel it; and prefer beaſts, victuals, and ridiculous amours before them. Among theſe people, he is ſober who is never drunk with any thing but wine; the too frequent uſe of it having rendered it flat and inſipid to them. They endeavour by brandy, and other ſtrong liquors, to quicken their taſte, already extinguiſhed,

guiſhed, and want nothing to complete their debauches, but to drink aqua fortis. The women of that country haſten the decay of their beauty, by their artifices to preſerve it: they paint their cheeks, eyebrows, and ſhoulders, which they lay open, together with their breaſts, arms, and ears, as if they were afraid to hide thoſe places which they think will pleaſe, and never think they ſhew enough of them. The phyſiognomies of the people of that country are not at all neat, but confuſed and embarraſſed with a bundle of ſtrange hair, which they prefer before their natural: with this they weave ſomething to cover their heads, which deſcends half way down their bodies, hides their features, and hinders you from knowing men by their faces. This nation has, beſide this, their God and their King. The grandees go every day, at a certain hour, to a temple they call a church. At the upper end of that temple there ſtands an altar conſecrated to their God, where the prieſt celebrates ſome myſteries which they call holy, ſacred, and tremendous. The great men make a vaſt circle at the foot of the altar, ſtanding with their backs to the prieſts and the holy myſteries, and their faces erected toward their king, who is ſeen on his knees, upon a throne, and to whom they ſeem to direct the deſires of their hearts, and all their devotion. However, in this cuſtom there is to be remarked a ſort of ſubordination; for the people appear adoring their prince, and their prince adoring God. The inhabitants of this region call it ******. It is from forty-eight degrees of latitude, and more than 11000 leagues by ſea, from the Iroquois and Hurons.'

Little did M. de la Bruyere think what a wonderful contraſt to this character his country would exhibit in little more than a century after!—Beſide this admirable work, he had begun 'Dialogues on Quietiſm,' which were finiſhed, after his death, by abbé Dupin, and publiſhed in 1699, in 12mo.—The beſt French editions of his Characters are thoſe of Amſterdam in 2 vol. 12mo. 1741, and of Paris, in 2 vol. 12mo. 1750, and in one vol. quarto, in 1765.—The Engliſh tranſlation of them is alſo in 2 vol. 12mo.

On the TENDENCY *of* NOVEL-READING.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

IN my laſt letter, I entered on the conſideration of the tendency of novels on the minds of the young. This is not a ſubject of trivial importance. That which has ſuch viſible effect on the manners and ſentiments of the age, demands our attention.

It has already been ſaid, that in handling this ſubject, it is by no means the intention of the writer to throw indiſcriminate blame on all novels, as if all were equally deſtitute of pure entertainment and juſt morality. There are no doubt a few, which may be read with advantage by young perſons, and which will greatly entertain, and may in ſome degree inſtruct, by intereſting their imaginations, and engaging their affections on the ſide of virtue ſtruggling with temptation and diſtreſs, and finally crowned with ſucceſs. But the number of the novels which may be thus recommended is ſmall, and to the beſt of them objections may be offered, although I ſtill would not include them in the liſt of traſh, againſt which theſe letters are principally directed.

The tendency of novels on the minds of their readers is of two kinds; either *negative* or *poſitive*. It is not eaſy to ſeparate theſe, but, by the firſt I would be underſtood to mean

that the conſtant readers of novels, very ſoon loſe all reliſh for any other books; the train of thought neceſſary in reading novels is ſo looſely connected, that I know not whether I do right in ſuppoſing that *thought* is at all neceſſary. The attention, however, which it is abſolutely neceſſary we ſhould beſtow upon any ſerious and inſtructive work, in order to make ourſelves maſters of it, is here wholly unemployed. Now, whoever knows any thing of the conſtitution of the human mind, muſt acknowledge that when its powers and faculties are not employed, they become torpid, enfeebled, and perverted. So active are our minds naturally, that without employment, that is, when we are neither acting nor thinking, we feel a langour and uneaſineſs that is inexpreſſible; and we know that to engage in ſome active purſuit, or to follow ſome train of rational argument, is the only method to remove this uneaſineſs.

Perſons whoſe employments require little or no exertion of mind, as the lower claſs of mechanics, are ſeldom noted for their ſuperior ſenſe or underſtanding; and books which we may read without commanding the attention, without appealing to our judgment, or employing the diſcriminating powers of our minds, that is, books of mere amuſement, are conſtantly found to induce a trifling, giddy, and thoughtleſs conduct, and to deprive their readers of a taſte for uſeful ſtudy. Even hiſtory and biography, the moſt ſimple, inſtructive, and amuſing of the ſerious ſtudies, become tireſome and fatiguing, becauſe requiring ſome thought, and becauſe they are wanting in that marvellous machinery, which bears the reader awake through the diſtorted action and events of a fictitious ſtory. In alienating the mind, therefore, from reading books of ſerious importance, and real utility, novels may be ſaid to have a pernicious *negative* tendency.

But this is not wholly *negative*; no influence on the mind is purely negative. There is no neutral faculty in the human mind. Men may ſeem to be doing nothing; we may fancy that they are merely idle, and we may ſuppoſe that mere idleneſs is a harmleſs ſtate. But the *mind* is never idle. Anatomiſts tell us, that in the bodies of perſons who have died of famine, the ſtomach has been found corroded by its own juices, they having no food to operate upon. And the analogy between the mind and body is ſo juſt, in rhetoric at leaſt, as to enable us to add, that a ſimilar effect is produced by depriving the mind of its true and ſubſtantial nouriſhment; all its faculties become corrupt and depraved. And nothing is more likely to produce ſuch an effect, than a courſe of inſipid and idle reading, which either leaves no impreſſion, or a very bad one.

More particularly; the generality of novels are *poſitively* pernicious, becauſe they are conſidered as poſſeſſing a merit, which it is in vain to ſeek in them. They are conſidered as exhibiting human life and manners, which, nevertheleſs, a very ſuperficial obſerver muſt acknowledge, they groſsly and conſtantly miſrepreſent. No pictures can be more diſtant from the original, than they are from giving a likeneſs of the real occurrences of life. No ſignpoſt dauber ever differed ſo much from the accuracy of a Reynolds, than they deviate from a faithful repreſentation of nature. Novel writers take upon them to bring together certain characters, not which they copy, but create, to employ them in certain actions, and to make theſe actions terminate in certain events, ſcarce one of which they ever knew to happen. One of theſe perſonages dies, another is hanged, and a third married, not becauſe it is probable that this would be their fate (if they really exiſted, indeed, the probability is all on the other ſide) but becauſe the author thinks it proper for his own wiſe purpoſes.

Vice, for inſtance, is generally connected

nected with wit, and not unfrequently crowned with ſucceſs. But 'vice,' ſays an eminent writer, 'ſhould always diſguſt; nor ſhould the graces of gayety, or the dignity of courage, be ſo united with it, as to reconcile it to the mind. Wherever it appears, it ſhould raiſe hatred by the malignity of its practices, and contempt by the meanneſs of its ſtratagems; for while it is ſupported by either parts or ſpirit, it will be ſeldom heartily abhorred. The Roman tyrant was contented to be hated, if he was but feared; and there are thouſands of the readers of romances willing to be thought wicked, if they may be allowed to be wits.'—How far theſe ſentiments are applicable to the preſent ſubject, I leave to the judgment of my readers.

Virtue, after many ſtruggles, or rather intrigues, is likewiſe made to be ſucceſsful, unleſs in a few novels of the tragic caſt. Now, if a young perſon think, that by reading a great number of ſuch caſes, he has acquired *experience*, how ſhall we undeceive him? Or rather, is it not abſurd in the extreme to ſuppoſe that any thing like experience of human life can be drawn from ſuch ſources? Nothing can be ſo neceſſary for a young perſon, as to acquire a ſtock of experience, and ſome knowledge of the world of which he is to be an active member, and to acquire this at the cheapeſt rate poſſible; but to what ſchool ſhall we ſend him? Inſtead of firſt ſtoring his mind with the principles of Chriſtian morality, as the foundation of all right thinking, and juſt action, and inſtead of deſiring him to obſerve human life as he ſees it in *real* life, to mark the events which take place within the ſphere of his knowledge, and meaſure the actions of others, by the ſacred precepts he has been taught; I ſay, inſtead of this eaſy and rational mode of acquiring experience, ſhall we ſend him to the circulating library? Juſt as rational would it be, for a man who was to write a treatiſe on the manners of the Engliſh nation to ſelect his materials from the ſtage; juſt as rational would it be for the noble lord who ſits in the court of chancery, to cull precedents of equity from Roderic Random, or ſolve a puzzling caſe by appealing to a ſimilar deciſion of Sancho Panza, the governor of Barataria.

Experience of human life, like every other branch of ſcience, muſt be founded on fact, and not on fiction. Who can reaſon from fiction? As well may a chemiſt produce a neutral from an ideal acid and alkali, or diſtil an odoriferous fluid in an imaginary alembic. His mind muſt be confined indeed, and his reſources ſmall and ſcanty, who follows a precedent that never went before, who expects a ſucceſs that never happened, and who thinks that his efforts will do that on the great theatre of life, which never was done but upon paper.

Moſt of the late novels have made virtue always ſucceſsful, and vice always the contrary. It is, no doubt, proper to inculcate on the youthful mind the ſuperiority of virtue over vice; but to prove that virtue is always ſucceſsful is ridiculous, becauſe it is impoſſible, and wicked, becauſe it is falſe and dangerous. It is one of the great and unanſwerable objections to novels, that they place all happineſs in the attainment of ſome object, independent of all religious conſideration. When I mention *religion*, I may be thought too faſtidious; but I have already hinted, that the effect of a habit of novel-reading is permanent and ſerious, and were they merely matters of tranſient amuſement, I ſhould perhaps wave the objection. I repeat it, however, that it is dangerous to repreſent virtue as always ſucceſsful; if it were ſo, this world would be the '*be all and the end all*.' It is true that virtue has *advantages* on its ſide, which every rational being will think gives it an undeniable preference even in this life. But theſe advantages are not ſuch as are repreſented to cloſe the career of a virtuous hero of romance; no, the reward

reward of his virtue more reſembles a ſhare in Mahomet's paradiſe, a fine woman, a ſplendid manſion, and a great fortune. Theſe are the lures held out to captivate the youthful votary of virtue; and the means whereby he is to attain this happineſs are not unfrequently proportioned to the end, diſhonourable as that is ſelfiſh.

I am, ſir, yours, &c.

LUCIUS.

The HISTORY *of* KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, *and* TASTE, *in* Great Britain, *during the Reign of Queen* ELISABETH. *Part the Fourth and Laſt* *.

IN the preceding number we entered, with ſome degree of extent, into the ſtate of poetry, as it ſubſiſted in the period concerning which we are treating. The poetical tranſlators, and the writers of Latin verſes, were particularly conſidered by us; and we endeavoured to deſcribe the general ſpirit of the Engliſh poetry of that age. This was accompanied with a view of the genius and character of Spenſer, eſpecially as exhibited in his 'Fairy Queen.' Before we proceed any farther in our narrative, one name muſt be added to the liſt of poetical tranſlators, and it is a name of no ſmall degree of eminence and celebrity. The perſon we mean is Edward Fairfax. As he lived till the year 1632, he is commonly reckoned among the poets of James the firſt's time.

But his grand work, the work indeed upon which his reputation wholly depends, the tranſlation of Taſſo's 'Jeruſalem Delivered,' was performed by him in very early life, and was publiſhed in queen Eliſabeth's reign, to whom it was dedicated. It undoubtedly ſtands at the head of the poetical verſions of that era. Though Fairfax confined himſelf too literally to the taſk of following his original line by line, he ſtill roſe above this diſadvantage, and far above the roughneſs and pedantry of his contemporaries. This tranſlation in general is particularly diſtinguiſhed by the harmony of its verſification, in which reſpect he ranks nearly, if not entirely, upon a level with Spenſer. Waller acknowledged that he learned his numbers from Fairfax.

Another circumſtance omitted by us, relative to poetical tranſlations, and which deſerves ſhortly to be noticed, is, that there were numerous verſions of Solomon's ſong. Some of theſe verſions were undertaken with religious purpoſes; but others of them, more wiſely, had only a view to the poem as a beautiful paſtoral drama. Perhaps there is no portion of the Jewiſh writings that could be ſelected with more propriety to be clothed in numbers. The 'Canticles,' in Engliſh verſe, are among the loſt productions of Spenſer.

In reverting to the general ſtate of Engliſh poetry during queen Eliſabeth's reign, as diſtinguiſhed from tranſlations and the dramatic ſpecies, a few words muſt be added concerning the great genius now mentioned. Various poems were written by him, beſide the 'Fairy Queen;' among which that which has excited the moſt attention is the 'Shepherd's Calender.' By the admirers of paſtoral poetry it has always been held in high eſtimation, and it has no ſmall merit of its kind. It has been the ſubject of imitation to ſucceeding writers; and the ſame has been the caſe with regard to his 'Aſtrophel,' or elegy on the death of ſir Philip Sidney. It is a paſtoral elegy; and we know that paſtoral elegies have been fabricated in this country, by a long train of verſifiers, till they have become inſignificant, and

* See our Magazine for October 1792, page 243.

even

even diſguſting. It need not be added, that we except the Lycidas of Milton.

So ſtrongly was the age of Eliſabeth devoted to poetry, that poetical publications were more numerous than thoſe of any other ſpecies of compoſition in our language. One effect of this taſte in the nation was, that there were two collections of 'Flowers' ſelected from the works of the moſt faſhionable poets. The firſt was entitled, 'England's Parnaſſus;' and the other, 'Belvidere, or, the Garden of the Muſes.' England's Parnaſſus had the ſuperiority, both in point of method and ſelection. Thus a cuſtom was begun, which in our own time has been carried to a blameable exceſs. If ſuch compilations are not wholly deſtitute of utility, they have the diſadvantage of contributing to the number of ſuperficial readers, and of preventing many authors from being entirely read, the whole of whoſe productions might juſtly claim a diligent peruſal.

The admiration of the period we are ſpeaking of was not confined to living writers. Our three old poets, Chaucer, Gower, and Lydgate, appear to have maintained their rank, and to have been regarded with high eſtimation. A ſumptuous edition of Gower's 'Confeſſio Amantis' had been publiſhed a little before the commencement of Eliſabeth's reign. About the ſame time, Lydgate's 'Troyboke' was printed with great accuracy, and a diligent inveſtigation of the ancient copies. This was the firſt correct edition of that work. Such was the reverence which Nicholas Briggam, a polite ſcholar, a ſtudent at Oxford, and at the inns of court, and a writer of poetry, entertained for Chaucer, that he depoſited the bones of that poet under a new tomb, erected at his own coſt, and inſcribed with a new epitaph, which ſtill remains in Weſtminſter-abbey. It was cuſtomary with the more accompliſhed and elegant courtiers to be frequent in quoting Chaucer. This faſhion began in Edward the ſixth's reign, and was encouraged by the nature of our poet's compoſitions, which abounded with ſatirical ſtrokes againſt the corruptions of the church, and the diſſolute manners of the monks. The ſame faſhion would naturally be exploded in the time of queen Mary: but there was nothing to prevent its revival under Eliſabeth.

We have formerly taken notice of lord Buckhurſt's 'Mirrour of Magiſtrates,' and of the aſſiſtance which he received from various writers in the proſecution of that work. This poem, or rather collection of poems, continued to be highly celebrated, and additions to it were repeatedly made, to render it more intereſting and complete. An enlarged impreſſion of it was given, in 1587, by John Higgins, a Somerſetſhire clergyman, who was already known to the learned world by ſome publications tending to the promotion of claſſical literature. To the 'Mirrour of Magiſtrates,' Higgins wrote a new 'Induction,' in the octave ſtanza; and without the aſſiſtance of friends, he began a new ſeries from Albanact, the youngeſt ſon of Brutus, and the firſt king of Albanie, or Scotland, continued to the emperor Caracalla. In this edition, among the pieces after the Conqueſt, firſt appeared the Life of Cardinal Wolſey, by Churchyard; of ſir Nicholas Burdet, by Baldwine; and of Eleanor Cobham, and of Humphrey duke of Glouceſter, by Ferrars. Two legends are introduced, ſaid to have been compoſed fifty years before; the ſubjects of which are, king James the fourth of Scotland, and Flodden Field. The part in which Higgins' poetical ſpirit is moſt diſplayed, occurs in his ſtory of 'Queene Cordila,' or Cordelia, king Lear's youngeſt daughter. The completion of the 'Mirrour of Magiſtrates,' by Richard Niccols, belongs to the next reign.

Though this work is a prime object in the poetical hiſtory of the age, and there were many competitors for fame

fame who tried their ſtrength in it, it is now almoſt entirely neglected. This may in part be imputed to the feeble, tedious, and obſolete execution of ſome of the narratives, and in part to the difference of taſte which takes place in different periods. Our anceſtors were more fond than their poſterity of long hiſtorical and moral poems, the deſign of which was to enforce a conviction of the vanity of human life, from a view of the calamities to which the greateſt public characters have been expoſed.

It will not be expected that we ſhould endeavour to recite the names of all the writers of general poetry that appeared during the reign of Eliſabeth. Several of them, though applauded by their contemporaries, are now found to have been entitled to no more than a ſmall degree of praiſe. George Gaſcoigne, in addition to his merits as a tranſlator and a dramatiſt, may here be mentioned as having been eſteemed one of the beſt love poets of his time. He obtained alſo ſome reputation as a ſatiriſt. Gabriel Harvey deſerves to be remembered with reſpect, on account of a copy of verſes written by him, ſigned Hobbinol, and which is prefixed to Spenſer's Fairy Queen. It has even been ſaid that this poem, if he had compoſed nothing elſe, would have rendered him immortal. Harvey was the author of ſeveral Latin performances, both in proſe and verſe, and appears to have been held in high eſtimation by the firſt wits of the age. —George Turbervile's compoſitions, beſide his tranſlations, were of various kinds; ſuch as epitaphs, epigrams, ſongs, and ſonnets; and poems deſcribing the places and manners of the country of Ruſſia, where he reſided for a time, as ſecretary to ſir Thomas Randolph. He was one of thoſe who endeavoured to refine the Engliſh ſtyle.—Sir John Harrington deſerves little notice as a poet, independently of his tranſlation of Arioſto. His Epigrams, however, are not deſtitute of wit.—If, amid ſo many claims to admiration and applauſe, ſir Walter Raleigh is to be ſpoken of as a poet, his title to that appellation belongs to the period to which we are now confined. His poetical pieces were entirely the amuſements of his youth, his attention being ſoon directed to ſuperior purſuits. If to excel in poetry had been the object of his ambition, there can be no doubt but that, from the ſtrength and greatneſs of his mind, and the ſtores of knowledge which would have aided his imagination, it might have been in his power to have riſen to a high degree of eminence.

There is ſome difficulty in aſcertaining what is the exact proportion of fame that is due to ſir Philip Sidney as a poet. He was a paſſionate admirer of the art of poetry, and his productions in this way were very numerous. It is univerſally agreed, that he was unfortunate in his attempts to introduce the Roman meaſures of verſe into our language, thoſe meaſures not agreeing with the genius of the Engliſh tongue. When, agreeably to the cuſtom of many of his contemporaries, he adopts the Alexandrian line, it is not poſſible to read him with pleaſure. Sir Philip ſucceeds better when he writes according to what is the ordinary mode of our verſification. Here, however, he is often tedious, not unfrequently quaint, and ſometimes he indulges to falſe wit. Conſidering that he was a man of true genius, and had ſuch a genuine taſte for poetry as to diſtinguiſh Spenſer with extraordinary admiration, it is rather ſurpriſing that he did not appear with ſuperior advantage in his own performances. But let us not imagine that he has no title to our approbation. Some few of the ſmaller pieces ſcattered through the Arcadia are poetical and pleaſing; and perhaps a diligent inſpection would be able to trace occaſional beauties in the larger ones. Such is the judgment which we have formed from a curſory attention to the ſubject. Sir Philip's Sonnets, and his

Aſtrophel, and Stella, we could not prevail upon ourſelves to read.

Joſeph Hall, who, in proceſs of time, became ſucceſſively biſhop of Exeter and Norwich, is entitled to particular diſtinction as a ſatyric poet. At the beginning of his celebrated 'Virgidemiarum,' he claims the honour of having led the way in this ſpecies of compoſition;

'I firſt adventure, follow me who liſt,
'And be the ſecond Engliſh ſatyriſt.'

This aſſertion of our poet is not ſtrictly true; for there were various ſatyrical writings previouſly to his appearance. But he was the firſt who diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a legitimate ſatyriſt, upon the claſſic model of Juvenal and Perſius, with an intermixture of ſome ſtrokes in the manner of Horace. Succeeding authors have availed themſelves of the pattern ſet them by Hall.

Sir Richard Maitland was the principal Scotch vernacular poet of this period. His productions were various, and are read with pleaſure by thoſe who are competent maſters of the local and obſolete language in which they are written.—John Maitland, afterward lord Thirlſtane, the ſecond ſon of ſir Richard, has lately found a place among the poets of his country, on account of one or two pieces brought to light and publiſhed by Mr. Pinkerton. It appears from the 'Deliciæ Poetarum Scotorum,' that he was the author of ſeveral Latin Epigrams.—Alexander Arbuthnot, Alexander Montgomery, and John Rolland, may be paſſed over without farther notice; nor is it merit, but rank, that induces us to mention James the ſixth of Scotland. He publiſhed in 1585, 'The Eſſayes of a Prentiſe in the divine Arte of Poeſie;' and in 1591, 'His Majeſties poetical Exerciſes at vacant Houres.' King James acted the critic as well as the poet. At the end of the firſt of theſe performances are, 'Rewlis and Cautelis of Scottis Poeſie,' which, ſays Mr. Pinkerton, are curious, though ſtupid. The eighth chapter of theſe rules contains the 'Kyndis of Poetry;' and mentions, 1. 'For long Hiſtories.' 2. 'For heroic Acts.' 3. 'For heich and grave Subjects.' 4. For tragic Matters.' 5. 'For flyting, or Invectives.'

We cloſe the ſubject of the poetry of this period with ſome view of it, as diſplayed in the dramatic form. The firſt regular tragedy which England produced was early in queen Eliſabeth's reign; and this was the Gorboduc of Thomas Sackville lord Buckhurſt; whom we have before celebrated as the original contriver of the 'Mirrour of Magiſtrates.' On account of the originality of the Gorboduc, it may, perhaps, be thought to deſerve a little more notice than could otherwiſe be allowed to a ſingle piece. It is written in blank verſe, divided into acts and ſcenes, and clothed in all the formalities of the legitimate drama. The firſt exhibition of it was in the great hall of the Inner Temple, by the ſtudents of that ſociety, as part of the entertainment of a grand Chriſtmas; and in January, 1561-2, it was again repreſented before the queen at Whitehall. It was not intended for the preſs; but having been ſurreptitiouſly and careleſsly printed, a correct edition of it was given in 1571. In the dramatic conduct of the fable, the unities of time and place are eminently and viſibly violated; a defect which Shakſpeare alone was able to cover by the magic of his poetry. There is a chorus of four ancient and ſage men of Britain, who regularly cloſe every act, the laſt excepted, with an ode, the deſign of which is to draw back the attention of the audience to the ſubject of what has juſt paſſed, and to illuſtrate it by recapitulary moral reflections, and poetical or hiſtorical alluſions. In the imagery of one of theſe Odes, no faint traces may be diſcerned of the hand which drew the terrible guardians of Hell-gate, in the 'Induction,' to the 'Mirrour of Magiſtrates.' The other odes contain beauties which cannot

'Treatiſe on the Differences of the Ages of Man's Life.' The latter is a curious and philoſophical performance; but the value of it is diminiſhed by its partaking too much of that uncouthneſs of language which was generally prevalent. Cuff had in his maſter a ſuperior model of Engliſh ſtyle. But Cuff had habituated himſelf to write like a ſcholar, while the earl managed his pen with the freedom of a man of the world. Cuff's Latin letters to John Hotman exhibit diſtinguiſhed marks of genius and learning.—Sir Walter Raleigh was the author of ſome miſcellaneous pieces in queen Eliſabeth's time; but we refer our principal character of him to the next reign.—To the names already given may be added that of ſir Geoffrey Fenton, ſecretary of ſtate in the kingdom of Ireland. If we had adverted to him in his proper place, he would have been ranked as a tranſlator, for he chiefly figured in that capacity. His principal works were 'Golden Epiſtles,' gathered from Latin, French, and Italian authors; and a tranſlation of 'The Hiſtory of the Wars of Italy, by Francis Guicciardini, in twenty Books.' This tranſlation was undoubtedly a very valuable preſent to the public, as Guicciardini is a maſterly hiſtorian, and the hiſtorical information communicated by him is highly important. Sir Geoffrey Fenton had a flowing ſtyle, which reflects credit on his judgment and taſte.

From the miſcellaneous we paſs on to the noble authors, ſeveral of whoſe productions come under the head of miſcellanies. Having before amply conſidered lord Buckhurſt as a poet, nothing remains to be ſaid of him in this place, excepting that ſome of his letters have been preſerved in collections of ſtate papers. It is, likewiſe, as a poet, that we are to introduce Edward Vere, ſeventeenth earl of Oxford. Several of his poems are printed in a noted collection of the day, entitled, 'The Paradiſe of dainty Devices.' Mr. Walpole, upon the authority of Anthony Wood, ſays that the earl was an admired poet, and reckoned the beſt writer of comedy in his time. As, however, it is acknowledged that the very names of all his plays are loſt, we muſt be permitted to doubt whether they ever exiſted. The accurate and diligent editors of the Biographia Dramatica have found no place for Edward Vere.—William Poulett, marquis of Winchester, was no otherwiſe diſtinguiſhed than as having printed a volume of Eſſays, which ſeem to have been little more than a compilation.—In a former number, we celebrated Robert Dudley, earl of Leiceſter, as excelling in Engliſh compoſition. This character he juſtified in ſeveral pieces written by him, not from the ambition of appearing in the world as an author, but from the neceſſity of reciting his own actions, or vindicating his own conduct. His productions of this kind are drawn up with dignity and ſpirit, and the letters of his, which are ſcattered through various collections, impreſs a high opinion of his talents.—The great ſtateſman, William Cecil, lord Burleigh, who began and maintained his career as a writer in the preceding reigns, continued it in the preſent. The pieces which public or private occaſions called out from him were full of gravity, wiſdom, and ſentiment. If his Letters and Diſpatches be taken into the account (and they are continually increaſing by new publications) he muſt be regarded as a voluminous author.—Henry Howard, earl of Northampton, and a younger ſon of the famous earl of Surrey, was ſaid to have been the learneſt among the nobility, and the moſt noble among the learned. If the laſt circumſtance was deſigned to convey any encomium upon him as a man, nothing could be more unjuſt; for his perſonal character was abominable and odious. That he had abilities, is unqueſtionable, and his learning may be acknowledged. But the proofs which he gave of it were of no great conſequence. His 'Defenſative againſt the

the Poiſon of ſuppoſed Prophecies,' contains ſome curious matter. He wrote 'An Apology for the Government of Women,' which has never found its way to the preſs. Devotion, alſo, employed his pen, though his conduct was ſo contrary to whatever deſerves the name of religion.—To the liſt of noble authors, may be added the names of the lord chancellor Hatton, who drew up a Treatiſe in the way of his profeſſion; and of Henry Cary, firſt lord Falkland, a family devoted to literature through four generations. This lord wrote 'The Hiſtory of the moſt unfortunate prince king Edward the ſecond; with choice political Obſervations on him and his unhappy Favourites.' It was not publiſhed till after his deceaſe.

[To be continued.]

BIOGRAPHICAL REGISTER *of eminent* PERSONS *deceaſed in* 1792*.

Biſhop HORNE.

DR. George Horne, a prelate, diſtinguiſhed by many excellent theological writings, was born in the year 1731, being the ſon of the Rev. Samuel Horne, rector of Otham, in Kent, by whom he was inſtructed in the firſt rudiments of learning. Being ſent to Magdalen College in Oxford, he was made Maſter of Arts in 1752, and was choſen Preſident of his College in 1768. About this time, he married the daughter of Philip Burton, eſq. of Eltham in Kent. He ſucceſſively took the degrees of Bachelor and Doctor in Divinity, and was appointed Chaplain in Ordinary to his Majeſty. In 1776, he was choſen Vice-chancellor of the Univerſity of Oxford, and continued in that office four years. In 1781, he was preferred to the deanry of Canterbury, and, in 1789, ſucceeded Dr. Bagot in the ſee of Norwich, on his tranſlation to that of St. Aſaph. He died on the 17th of January 1792, in the ſixty-ſecond year of his age. His faculties continued with him to the laſt; and he may be truly ſaid to have died 'the death of the Righteous.' His mind was not only remarkably pleaſant as his end drew near, but even lively and pleaſant. When he had received the ſacrament from the hands of his chaplain, he ſaid he felt himſelf bleſſed and happy. To each individual of his family, he gave his benediction; bidding them go, and do all the good in their power. He expired without a groan, in the ſame heavenly tranquillity in which he lived; and he might have truly ſaid, as the illuſtrious Addiſon did in his dying moments, 'See in what peace a Chriſtian can die.'—He was interred in the family-vault of his father-in-law at Eltham. He left three daughters, the eldeſt of whom is married to the Rev. Selby Hele.

Beſide ſeveral ſingle ſermons, Dr. Horne publiſhed in 1769, 'Conſiderations on the Life and Death of St. John the Baptiſt,' in 12mo. This was intended for the younger ſtudents in theology, and contains many pious and practical reflections. In 1776, he publiſhed in 2 vol. 4to. 'A Commentary on the Book of Pſalms; in which the literal, or hiſtorical Senſe, as they relate to king David, and the People of Iſrael, is illuſtrated, and their Application to Meſſiah, to the Church, and to Individuals, as Members thereof, is pointed out.' It was afterward publiſhed in two volumes 8vo.—This publication has great merit, not only as it recommends to our attentive regard an important part of the ſacred writings, but as it illuſtrates them, and preſents to our view a great number of pleaſing, ſolid, and edifying reflections. Piety, indeed, appears to have been a predominant trait in the character of Dr. Horne, and to have been productive to himſelf

* See Biographical Regiſter for 1791, in our Magazine for June 1792.

ſelf of that felicity and enjoyment which the world cannot give. Thus, ſpeaking of the ſatisfaction he had found in compoſing this work, he ſays: 'Could the author flatter himſelf, that any one would have half the pleaſure in reading the following expoſition, which he hath had in writing it, he would not fear the loſs of his labour. The employment detached him from the buſtle and hurry of life, the din of politics, and the noiſe of folly: vanity and vexation flew away for a ſeaſon; care and diſquietude came not near his dwelling. He aroſe, freſh as the morning, to his taſk; the ſilence of the night invited him to purſue it; and he can truly ſay, that food and reſt were not preferred before it. Every pſalm improved infinitely on his acquaintance with it, and no one gave him uneaſineſs but the laſt; for then he grieved that his work was done. Happier hours than thoſe which have been ſpent in theſe meditations on the ſongs of Sion, he never expects to ſee in this world. Very pleaſantly did they paſs, and move ſmoothly and ſwiftly along; for, when thus engaged, he counted no time. They are gone, but have left a reliſh and a fragrance on the mind, and the remembrance of them is ſweet.'—In 1777, he publiſhed 'A Letter to Adam Smith, L.L.D. on the Life, Death, and Philoſophy of his Friend David Hume, eſq.' In this he points out the pernicious tendency of that philoſopher's writings, and the folly of his aſſumed levity in the article of death, in a ſtrain of argument, ſometimes ſerious and ſometimes pleaſant. In 1779, he publiſhed, in a vol. 8vo. 'Diſcourſes on ſeveral Subjects and Occaſions.' In theſe, he appears to have conformed to the advice of the excellent Fenelon, in his 'Dialogues on the Eloquence of the Pulpit,' that preachers would pay an attentive and principal regard to the Scriptures, and endeavour to impreſs and influence their hearers by the ſeveral conſiderations that are to be thence drawn. Dr. Horne, accordingly, addreſſes himſelf more to the heart than is commonly done, in the preſent day, by our argumentative preachers; and, conſequently, his diſcourſes are more calculated to anſwer the end of preaching than others, which might, perhaps, be conſidered as ſuperior in ſtyle and compoſition; although, even in this inferior reſpect, theſe ſermons are far from being deficient. His ſentiments throughout, although he enters into no controverſial points, appear to be what is generally termed orthodox.—In 1784, he publiſhed, in 12mo. 'Letters on Infidelity.' Theſe letters contain ſtrictures on the nature, tendency, principles, and reaſonings of ſome modern productions on the ſide of infidelity. They are well calculated to ſuit the taſte and turn of the preſent age, which is not fond of long and elaborate diſſertations on religious ſubjects; being written in a conciſe, lively, and entertaining manner, and with a due mixture of ſerious argument, good humour, and pleaſantry. The opinions of Hume, Voltaire, and other modern infidels, he often combats very ſucceſsfully, in their own way, by placing their arguments in a ludicrous point of view, and turning the laugh againſt themſelves. As a ſpecimen of his ſerious reaſoning, we ſhall quote what he ſays in anſwer to the boaſt of Mr. Hume's friends, that 'few of the profeſſors of Chriſtianity ever equalled him in morality, humanity, and the government of their paſſions.'—To this Dr. Horne anſwers very juſtly and ſenſibly: 'Thouſands, in the firſt ages of the goſpel, gave all their goods to feed the poor; renounced, in deed as well as word, the world and the fleſh; and joyfully met death, in its moſt horrid forms, for the love of their Redeemer. On the ſame principle, unnumbered multitudes, in every ſucceeding age, have manfully ſuſtained the heavieſt calamities of human life, and with faith unfeigned, and hope that maketh not aſhamed, yielded up their ſouls into the hands of their Creator. Scenes of this kind

are

are daily and hourly passing in the chambers of the sick and dying, as they, whose office it is to visit those chambers, well know. To others they must remain unknown, for want of biographers to record them. Every Christian that lives in piety and charity, does not favour the public with "*his own life.*" Every Christian who expires in peace and hope, has not the happiness of a Dr. Smith to pen the story of his death.'—In 1787, Dr. Horne published a Visitation Sermon, entitled, 'The Duty of contending for the Faith;' to which is subjoined, 'A Discourse on the Trinity in Unity.'—In these two discourses he zealously maintained the Athanasian doctrine, as adopted by the church of England, and consequently drew upon himself the animadversions of an equally zealous champion on the opposite side of the question, Dr. Priestley, in a pamphlet entitled, 'Letters to Dr. Horne, Dean of Canterbury; to the young Men who are in a Course of Education for the Christian Ministry, at the University of Oxford and Cambridge; to Dr. Price; and to Mr. Parkhurst; on the Subject of the Person of Christ.'—Dr. Horne's last publication was, 'Charity recommended on its true Motive: a sermon, preached in the church of St. George the Martyr, Bloomsbury, before the Governors of the benevolent Institution for the Delivery of poor Married Women at their own Habitations, on Sunday, March 30, 1788.'—In this sermon, our truly benevolent divine distinguishes charity from vain, ostentatious donation, and from those *fine* feelings, which, in some persons, prompt a kind of *instinctive* benevolence. This, he observes, is not Christian charity, which has a *religious* motive for its object. 'If God so loved us, we ought also to love one another *;' a motive at once rational, pure, and permanent.

Rev. Micajah Towgood.

The Rev. Micajah Towgood, a Protestant Dissenting Minister of considerable eminence, was born at Axminster, in the county of Devon, December 6, 1700. His father was a physician of the same place, and the son of Mr. Matthew Towgood, one of the ministers ejected by the Act of Uniformity in 1662. He had his grammar learning under the Rev. Mr. Chadwick of Taunton; and, in 1717, he entered upon a course of academical studies in the same place, under the direction of Mr. Stephen James and Mr. Grove. Soon after he had commenced a preacher, he settled with a congregation of Protestant Dissenters at Moreton-Hampsted, in Devonshire, and was ordained there in August 1722. The following year he married the daughter of James Hawker, esq. of Luppit. He removed to Crediton, in the same county, in 1735, at the earnest solicitation of a respectable Society of Dissenters; and soon after, he published 'Recovery from Sickness,' intended originally for the use of a sister just recovered from a dangerous disorder, and accompanied with suitable reflections and devotions. This small piece appeared without his name; as did likewise 'High flown episcopal and priestly claims freely examined, in a Dialogue between a Country Gentleman and a Country Vicar,' printed in 1737. Dr. Warren having, in a volume of posthumous sermons, compared the Schism of the Dissenters to that of the Samaritans, he wrote 'The Dissenters Apology,' in 1739; in which he vindicates a separation from the church of England. In 1741, when the nation was engaged in a war with Spain, he published 'Spanish Cruelty and Injustice, a justifiable Plea for a vigorous War with Spain.' In this pamphlet, he encourages Britons to hope for success from the justice of the war on our part; the cruelty of our enemies toward Pagans, Jews, Mahometans, and Christians; and from their trusting in false protectors. The first ser-

* The text, 1 John iv. 11.

mon

mon he publiſhed was delivered at Crediton, on the Sunday after the dreadful fire in 1743, which conſumed the greateſt part of that town. During the rebellion, in 1745, he printed, in a ſmall pamphlet, biſhop Burnet and biſhop Lloyd's account of the birth of the Pretender, ſhewing ſtrong grounds to ſuſpect it to be an impoſture. With the ſame view, that of ſupporting the intereſts of the reigning family, he publiſhed 'A Summary View of the Errors, Abſurdities, and Iniquities, of Popery;' a ſermon preached at Exeter. In both theſe pieces are ſtrong expreſſions of attachment to the houſe of Hanover and the Proteſtant ſucceſſion. The work by which he is moſt known to the world, is the 'Diſſenting Gentleman's Anſwer to Mr. White,' a clergyman of the dioceſe of Norwich, who had endeavoured to retort upon the Diſſenters their objections againſt the church of England. The firſt of Mr. Towgood's letters appeared in 1746, and was followed by two others in 1747 and 1748. This work has paſſed through ſix editions: the laſt was printed in 1787, and accompanied with a print of the author from a painting by Opie. Whoever wiſhes to become acquainted with the principles upon which the modern Diſſenters ſeparate from the church may ſee them here. In 1748, appeared an 'Eſſay toward attaining a true Idea of the Character of Charles I,' conſiſting of extracts from the moſt celebrated hiſtorians. The deſign of this performance is to ſhow, by impartial teſtimonies, that the reſpect which has been paid to the memory of this monarch has no juſt foundation. In 1750, he was invited to accept of the paſtoral charge, by the two united congregations of Proteſtant Diſſenters in Exeter, with whom he ſettled the ſame year as one of their miniſters. This year he publiſhed 'The Baptiſm of Infants a reaſonable Service;' in which he has given an excellent ſummary of the arguments in ſupport of that practice. This was ſucceeded by another tract, intitled 'Dipping not the only Scriptural and Primitive manner of Baptizing.' His 'Serious and free Thoughts,' addreſſed to a Biſhop, was printed in 1755. The Iſlands of Cape Breton and St. John being taken by the Britiſh forces in 1758, he preached a ſermon upon the occaſion, the Sunday after the account of this event arrived, which was afterward printed, in which Britons are invited to thank God for national bleſſings. In 1761, he engaged, in conjunction with Mr. Hogg, Mr. Turner, and Mr. Merivale, in conducting an academy, removed from Taunton to Exeter, for the education of miniſters among Proteſtant Diſſenters, and continued to give his aſſiſtance to this inſtitution till the year 1769. The department allotted to him was delivering lectures upon the New Teſtament. In 1772, he was deputed, from the aſſembly of Diſſenting miniſters for the counties of Devon and Cornwall, to wait upon the biſhop of Exeter, to thank him for the ſupport which he had given to the bill for the relief of Diſſenting miniſters and ſchool-maſters in reſpect to ſubſcribing the articles of the church of England. From the time of his reſidence in Exeter he had enjoyed, in a very high degree, the reſpect and affection of the ſocieties of Proteſtant Diſſenters with whom he was connected, which was no more than what was due to his talents, character, and unremitting endeavours to promote their intereſts. He continued his ſervices among them till 1782, when the increaſing weakneſs of his voice, which had never been ſtrong, obliged him to reſign. On this occaſion, the two ſocieties concurred in preſenting him with a handſome piece of plate, as a teſtimony of the high ſenſe they entertained of his ſervices. In 1784, he concluded his public labours by a farewell addreſs to them upon 'The Grounds of Faith in Jeſus Chriſt.' From this time he continued to poſſeſs almoſt uninterrupted health and ſpirits, till about a year before his death, when he was ſeized with a

paralytic

Westburn Place, near Paddington.

paralytic diſorder, which deprived him in a great meaſure of his ſpeech; but his mental faculties ſeemed to be ſtill unimpaired. His diſſolution was ſo eaſy that it was not perceived by thoſe who ſtood by his bed-ſide. He had derived from nature a ſound and vigorous underſtanding, which he had enriched with a large ſtore of knowledge on various ſubjects, but particularly with theological and biblical learning. His public diſcourſes conſiſted of clear expoſitions of Scripture, and of forcible animated reaſoning, delivered in ſuch an agreeable and ſtriking manner as engaged univerſal attention. Feeling himſelf the truths he laboured to enforce upon others, they could not fail to make a ſtrong impreſſion. His piety was fervent and exalted, but founded upon rational principles, and without any mixture of affectation or enthuſiaſm. The zeal he diſcovered for the intereſts of truth and religious liberty was a very conſpicuous part of his character; nor was his concern for the civil rights of mankind leſs ardent. Yet both were tempered with candour. In private life, his deportment was amiable and benevolent. His religious ſentiments were ſuch as were deemed highly heretical when he firſt entered upon public life; on which account he found ſome difficulty in procuring ordination, and experienced the reſentment of bigots long after; but they would be eſteemed what is termed *orthodox*, by many in the preſent day, as he attributed to Chriſt a high degree of pre-exiſtent dignity, and conſidered him as a proper object of religious worſhip.—Mr. Towgood died at Exeter, on the 31ſt of January 1792, in the ninety-ſecond year of his age.

Sir JOSHUA REYNOLDS,

BORN July 16, 1723, died Feb. 23, 1792. Of this celebrated painter we have given memoirs, with a fine portrait, in our Magazine for Auguſt 1792.

[To be concluded in our next.]

An Account of WESTBURN PLACE, *near* Paddington, *the Villa of* JEWKES COULSON, *Eſq. With a beautiful Perſpective View.*

WESTBURN PLACE, the handſome villa of Jewkes Coulſon, eſq. an eminent anchorſmith, in Thames-ſtreet, London, is ſituated at Weſtburn Green, one mile and a half from Tyburn Turnpike, and three quarters of a mile from the new church at Paddington. This green is one of thoſe beautifully rural ſpots, for which that pariſh, although contiguous to the metropolis, is diſtinguiſhed. The houſe is ſituated on a riſing ground, which commands a pleaſing view of Hampſtead and Highgate: the village of Paddington, with the elegant new church, produces a pretty effect when viewed from hence; and as no part of London can be ſeen, a perſon diſpoſed to enjoy the pleaſures of rural retirement, might here forget his proximity to 'the buſy hum of men.' The houſe was built by Mr. Iſaac Ware, who quitted the ignoble profeſſion of a chimney-ſweeper, and commencing the man of ſcience and taſte, was employed in building many houſes, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf, moreover, by ſome books on the ſubject of architecture. The gardens and pleaſure grounds are laid out with great taſte; and cloſe to Mr. Coulſon's elegant manſion is a farm-houſe, which is occupied as an occaſional country reſidence by the moſt noble George Grenville Nugent, marquis of Buckingham.

HISTORY *of the* MANNERS, VIRTUES, VICES, *remarkable* CUSTOMS, *&c. of the People of* Great Britain; *during the Reigns of* Henry VII *and* VIII: *Concluded from Page* 105.

THE domeſtic manners of the Scots have ſeldom attracted hiſtorical notice; and their advances in refinement are to be collected or conjectured from their peculiar cuſtoms, their progreſs in the arts, and their improvement in their various comforts of life. Their mora's, contraſted with thoſe of their anceſtors, are arraigned as degenerate by the hiſtorian Boethius, who accuſes their intemperance, cenſures their luxury, and laments their departure from the frugal moderation and rugged virtues of the ancient Scots. His deſcription, however, of theſe primitive obdurate virtues is far from attractive; and what *be* denominates vicious intemperance and exceſſive luxury, may be fairly interpreted an increaſing refinement and ſuperior elegance in ſocial life. The nobles, who reſorted ſeldom to cities, preſerved in their caſtles their former rude but hoſpitable magnificence, which increaſed their retainers and ſtrengthened their power, ſecured their ſafety, or enabled them to proſecute their deadly feuds. The people were divided into factions by thoſe lords to whom they attached themſelves, whoſe intereſt they eſpouſed, and whoſe quarrels they adopted; and the clans peculiar at preſent to the Highlands, were probably once univerſal in Scotland. In the Highlands, and on the borders, clans were perpetuated by a conſtant warfare, that inured the people to the fierceneſs and rapine of a predatory life. As thieves and plunderers their character was proverbial; yet their depredations, committed generally on hoſtile tribes, aſſume an appearance of military virtue; and their mutual fidelity, their obſervance of promiſes, and in the Highlands, their inviolable attachment to their chieftains, are circumſtances ſufficient almoſt to redeem their character. The Chattan clan, during the minority of James V, had made a deſtructive incurſion into Murray, but after their return were aſſailed and oppreſſed by ſuperior forces; and two hundred of the tribe, rather than betray their chieftain or diſcloſe his retreat, preferred and ſuffered an ignominious death.

The mutability of language to the learned, whoſe fame depends on its duration, an inceſſant topic of ſerious regret, ſeems to be counteracted by the art of printing; which, in proportion as it diſſeminates a taſte for letters, re-acts as a model on colloquial ſpeech, and operates, if not entirely to repreſs innovation, at leaſt to preſerve the ſtability and perpetuate the radical ſtructure of language. Such ſtability the Engliſh language has acquired from printing, and at the diſtance of three centuries, ſtill exhibits the ſame phraſeology and ſyntactical form, varied only by thoſe alterations eſſential to the progreſſive refinement of ſpeech. The language of the period, if neceſſary to diſcriminate its peculiar ſtyle, was unpoliſhed and oral; its character is rude ſimplicity, neither aſpiring to elegance, nor ſolicitous of eaſe, but written as it was ſpoken, without regard to ſelection or arrangement. Reduced to modern orthography, it is only diſtinguiſhable from the common colloquial diſcourſe of the preſent period, by a certain ruſt of antiquity, by phraſes that are abrogated, or words that are either effaced or altered. Theſe, however, are not numerous; and we may conclude from the compoſitions of the learned, that the language of the people differed little from the preſent, unleſs in pronunciation, which, to judge from orthography, was harſh, and ſuch as would now be denominated provincial or vulgar. Whatever has been ſince ſuperadded, either by a ſkilful arrange-

ment

ment or the incorporation of foreign or claſſical words and idioms, is more the province of critical diſquiſition than hiſtorical reſearch; yet it merits obſervation, that the firſt attempts at elegance are aſcribable, in poetry to Surry, in proſe perhaps to ſir Thomas More, whoſe Engliſh ſtyle, as it was modelled on his Latin, is conſtructed with art, and replete with inverſions, approaching to that which, in contradiſtinction to the vulgar, may be juſtly denominated a learned diction.

This hiſtory has already furniſhed ſufficient ſpecimens both of the Scottiſh and Engliſh languages, which, deſcended from the ſame Gothic original, and nearly ſimilar in former periods, divaricated conſiderably during the preſent. This is to be attributed to the alteration and improvement of the Engliſh, for the Scottiſh was more ſtationary; nor is there in the language a material difference between the compoſitions of James I, and thoſe of Bellenden, Dunbar, and Douglas; each of whom, by the liberal adaptation of Latin words, enriched and poliſhed his vernacular idiom. But for the union of the crowns, which in literature rendered the Engliſh the prevalent language, the Scottiſh might have riſen to the merit of a civil dialect, different rather in pronunciation than ſtructure; not ſo ſolemn but more energetic, nor leſs ſuſceptible of literary culture.

The diet of the peaſantry is ſubject, in different periods, to few alterations; becauſe it conſiſts of the common produce of the ſoil, prepared in the ſimpleſt manner for food. Their bread-corn in England was rye or barley, ſometimes oats mixed with pulſe; a food preferred for its nutrition to wheat, which, till rendered by a better cultivation cheap and abundant, was uſually confined to the tables of the wealthy. Theſe tables were more luxurious and expenſive than formerly; diſtinguiſhed by the variety of delicate viands, as well as by the quantity of ſubſtantial fare; and Polydore expatiates with viſible complacency on the various pleaſures of thoſe tables at which he had feaſted; on the juicy flavour of the mutton, and the ſweetneſs of the beef, eſpecially when ſlightly ſalted; on the tenderneſs of the young geeſe and the Kentiſh hens; the delicacy of the partridges, pheaſants, and quails, and the fatneſs of the larks, thruſhes, and blackbirds, of which incredible numbers were caught in winter, and preſented almoſt at every table. But his taſte was peculiarly gratified by the varieties and abundance of excellent fiſh, which, to a churchman, renders the mortification even of the appetite luxurious; he diſcriminates the gurnard, whiting, mullet, turbot, breme, and ſturgeon; depreciates the mackerel as dry, the ſhad as inſipid; extolls the rich and delicious oyſters, and approves of the recent tranſlation of the pike from fens and lakes into gentlemen's ponds. To theſe the carp might be added, introduced from the continent in the preſent period as ſtore for ponds; and from theſe particulars, to a foreigner important, we may conclude that few delicacies were wanting at feaſts. Vegetables, however, were ſparingly provided; and as regular markets were not general, country families killed a number of beeves at Michaelmas, and ſubſiſted till Whitſuntide on ſalted meat.

Their cookery cannot now be appreciated, or diſtinguiſhed, otherwiſe than by a profuſion of hot ſpices with which every diſh was indiſcriminately ſeaſoned *. Dinner and ſupper were ſerved in the hall, where the firſt table was placed in a ſort of receſs, or elevation, at the upper end, and reſerved for the landlord and his principal gueſts, while viſitors, leſs reſpectable, were ſeated with the officers of the houſehold at long and narrow

* Above 100 lb. of ſpices were employed annually in the Northumberland family. Northumberland houſehold book.

tables that occupied the ſides and the middle of the hall. The rank of the gueſts was again diſcriminated by their arrangement, by their ſituation above or below the ſaltceller, which was placed invariably in the middle of the table, and the uſher was carefully inſtructed to diſplace ſuch as might ſeat themſelves unmannerly above their betters. The chief ſervants attended always above the ſaltceller, beneath which the table was probably crowded with poor dependents, whom the gueſts deſpiſed, and the ſervants neglected. The ſervants were marſhalled, and the diſhes ſerved, by orders iſſued aloud from the uſher; and at table none preſumed to taſte of the diſhes till they were drawn ſucceſſively upward to the principal perſonage, from whom they deſcended again to the reſt of the company. Churchmen affected peculiar ceremony, and the abbot of St. Alban's dined with greater ſtate than the nobility themſelves. His table was elevated fifteen ſteps above the hall, and in ſerving his dinner, the monks, at every fifth ſtep, performed a hymn. He dined alone at the middle of his table, to the ends of which gueſts of diſtinguiſhed rank were admitted; and the monks, after their attendance on the abbot was over, ſat down to tables at the ſides of the hall, and were ſerved with equal reſpect by the novices. At Wolſey's entertainment of the French ambaſſadors, the company were ſummoned by trumpet to ſupper, and the courſes were announced by a prelude of muſic. The ſecond courſe contained upward of a hundred devices or ſubtilties; caſtles, churches, animals, warriors jufting on foot and on horſeback; others dancing with ladies; 'all as well counterfeited,' ſays the hiſtorian, 'as the painter ſhould have painted on a cloth or wall.' Such entertainments were not of a ſhort duration; the dinner hour was eleven in the forenoon, the ſupper ſix in the evening; but the dinner was often prolonged till ſupper, and that protracted till late at night. Breakfaſt ſeems to have been a ſolitary meal, not univerſal, but, like the collation after ſupper, confined to a few in their private apartments. But it was not probably an unſubſtantial meal; and the collation, the ſlighteſt repaſt of the age, conſiſted often of brawn, jellies, ſweetmeats, ale, brandy, and ſpiced wines.

The diet of the Scots was worſe, and more penurious than that of the Engliſh. The peaſants ſubſiſted chiefly on oatmeal and cabbages, for animal food was ſparingly uſed, even at the tables of ſubſtantial gentlemen. An Engliſh traveller, who experienced the hoſpitality of a Scottiſh knight, deſcribes the table as furniſhed with large platters of porridge, in each of which was a ſmall piece of ſodden beef, and remarks that the ſervants entered in their blue caps without uncovering, and, inſtead of attending, ſeated themſelves with their maſter at table. His meſs was better however than theirs, a boiled pullet with prunes in the broth; but his gueſt obſerved, 'no art of cookery, or furniture of houſehold ſtuff, but rather rude neglect of both.' Forks are a recent invention, and in England the table was only ſupplied with knives; but in Scotland every gentleman produced from his girdle a knife, and cut the meat into morſels for himſelf and the women; a practice that firſt intermixed the ladies and gentlemen alternately at table. The uſe of the fingers in eating required a ſcrupulous attention to cleanlineſs, and ablution was cuſtomary, at leaſt at court, both before and after meals. But the court and the nobility emulated the French in their manners, and adopted probably their refinements in diet. The Scottiſh reader will obſerve, that the knights dinner was compoſed of two coarſe diſhes peculiar to Scotland; but others of an exquiſite delicacy were probably derived from the French, and retained, with little alteration, by a nation otherwiſe ignorant of the culinary arts. The Scots, though aſſimilating faſt to the Engliſh, ſtill reſemble the French in their tables.

Ale and Gaſcony wines were the prin-

principal liquors; but mead, cyder, and perry were not uncommon. Hops were ſtill ſcarce, and ſeldom employed in ale, which was brewed therefore in ſmall quantities, to be drank while new. At the king's table ale was prohibited as unfit for uſe till five days old. The wines, whatever was their quality, were certainly ſuperior to our preſent harſh and aſtringent port; yet Eraſmus complains repeatedly that good wine was unknown in England. His frail and ſickly conſtitution required wine of a peculiar age and quality; and it is probable that his poverty deterred him from procuring the beſt. The wine was ſtill circulated in a large cup, from which the company drank alternately. The Engliſh were ſober, the Scotch intemperate; they are accuſed at leaſt by their own hiſtorians of exceſſive drinking, an imputation long attached to their national character.

Martial diverſions have been already deſcribed, and the ſports of the field are, in different ages, purſued with an uniformity almoſt permanent. In England hunting has ever been a favourite diverſion, and hawking has only been ſuperſeded by the fuſil; but it was ſtill practiſed with unabating ardour, and cultivated ſcientifically as a liberal art. Treatiſes were compoſed on the diet and diſcipline proper for the falcon; the genus was diſcriminated like ſocial life, and a ſpecies appropriated to every intermediate rank, from an emperor down to a knave or peaſant; nor were gentlemen more diſtinguiſhed by the blazoning of heraldry, than by the particular hawks they were entitled to carry. The long bow was alſo employed in fowling, a ſport in which much dexterity was requiſite; but archery was even a female amuſement; and it is recorded that Margaret, on her journey to Scotland, killed a buck with an arrow in Alnwick park. The preſervation of the feathered game was enforced in the preſent age by a ſtatute, the firſt that was enacted of thoſe laws which have ſince accumulated into a code of oppreſſion.

The Scottiſh monarchs hunted in the Highlands, ſometimes in a ſtyle of eaſtern magnificence. For the reception of James V, the queen his mother, and the pope's ambaſſador, the earl of Atholl conſtructed a palace or bower of green timber, interwoven with boughs, moted around, and provided with turrets, portcullice, and drawbridge, and furniſhed within with whatever was ſuitable for a royal abode. The hunting continued for three days, during which, independent of roes, wolves, and foxes, ſix hundred deer were captured; an incredible number, unleſs we ſuppoſe that a large diſtrict was ſurrounded, and the game driven into a narrow circle to be ſlain, without fatigue, by the king and his retinue. On their departure the earl ſet fire to the palace, an honour that excited the ambaſſador's ſurpriſe; but the king informed him that it was cuſtomary with Highlanders to burn thoſe habitations they deſerted. The earl's hoſpitality was eſtimated at the daily expence of a thouſand pounds, at preſent equivalent at leaſt to three thouſand pounds ſterling.

During the preſent period, ſeveral games were invented or practiſed to the diſuſe of archery, for the promotion of which, bowls, quoits, cayles, tennis, cards, and dice, were prohibited by legiſlature as unlawful games. Tennis, however, was a royal paſtime, in which Henry VIII in his youth delighted much; and a match is recorded between him and the emperor, the prince of Orange, and the marquis of Brandenburgh. But the favourite amuſements of court, next to tournaments, were maſques and pageants; the one an Italian diverſion ſubſervient to gallantry, the other a vehicle of groſs adulation. The maſques were deſtitute of character, humour, and dialogue; they were conducted in dumb ſhow, and their merit conſiſted in the groteſque diſguiſes of a part of the company, who entered as ſtrangers to dance with the ladies. The maſque and pageant were often united; for the pageant was properly a piece

a piece of machinery, an artificial mountain, a ſhip, a caſtle, in which the maſquers were introduced into the hall, or from which, in ſolemn proceſſions, allegorical perſonages recited pedantic and long panegyrics.

Curioſity is naturally excited concerning the preſent ſtate, which is properly the origin, of the Engliſh drama; that ſtate which preceded its youthful vigour, when Shakſpeare delineated human nature, even in the infancy of a fairy creation. But hiſtorical informations are not ſatisfactory, and we can only conclude that the revival of letters diſcredited myſteries, and propagated a purer taſte for dramatic compoſition. We diſcover that a comedy from Plautus was performed at court, where at Chriſtmas plays, or rather ſhort interludes, were often repreſented. But the revival of letters introduced the drama into ſchools and colleges; plays were compoſed by profeſſors, and performed by their pupils; nor did grave lawyers, at their annual feſtivals, diſdain the laurels acquired on the ſtage. Theſe however were temporary ſtages; but the church is ſtill to be regarded as an eſtabliſhed theatre, licenſed, not indeed by divine permiſſion, for the gratuitous exhibition of religious ſpectacles. Diſpoſſeſſed by the reformers, or interdicted from preaching by the king's ſupremacy, the popiſh clergy ſeceded to ſecular ſtages, and endeavoured to diſcredit the goſpellers by farces more efficacious and popular than their former ſermons. The reformers retaliated, by converting the myſteries of the church into a ſatirical repreſentation of the corruptions of popery; and repeated ordinances were afterward neceſſary to ſuppreſs theſe ludicrous polemics of the church and ſtage. In churches the performers were chiefly the choriſters; at court they were probably minſtrels, of whom a company followed queen Margaret from England, and exhibited ſeveral plays or myſteries at the Scottiſh court. The minſtrels, who diſappeared under Henry VIII were probably converted, by the prevalence of theatrical amuſements, into itinerant players; in the ſucceeding reign, an eſtabliſhed and apparently a numerous profeſſion.

A more ignoble, perhaps a more popular ſpectacle, conſiſted of bears; 'of which,' ſays Eraſmus, 'many herds are maintained in Britain, for the purpoſe of dancing.' Bear-baiting was a favourite diverſion, exhibited as a ſuitable amuſement for a princeſs.

The winter ſolſtice, when the ſun regains its northern direction, was celebrated by our remote and idolatrous anceſtors; and Chriſtianity, unable to ſuppreſs the feſtival, transferred it under the ſame name to a different day. At Chriſtmas, or the feaſt of *Yule*, peculiar diſhes have been always employed, and every domeſtic diverſion adopted that tends to cheer or to diſſipate the gloom of winter. To regulate, or rather to promote ſuch paſtimes, a lord or abbot of miſrule was created; but of theſe amuſements, perhaps, the moſt rational was the recital of old and romantic tales. The domeſtic amuſements, in a period ſubſequent to the preſent, are thus enumerated: 'The ordinary recreations which we have in winter are cardes, tables and dice, ſhovel board, cheſſe play, the philoſophers game, ſmall trunkes, balliards, muſicke, maſkes, ſinging, dancing, ule games, catches, purpoſes, queſtions; merry tales of errant knights, kings, queens, lovers, lords, ladies, giants, dwarfs, thieves, fayries, goblins, friars, witches, and the reſt.' Among theſe amuſements cards began to predominate, to be prohibited by parliament, and licenſed by the king. Gaming became more inordinate and ruinous; but let not cards be therefore depreciated; a happy invention, which, adapted equally to every capacity, removes the invidious diſtinctions of nature, beſtows on fools the preeminence of genius, or reduces wit and wiſdom to the level of folly.

GLEAN.

GLEANINGS.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

The following Thoughts I find in a Memorandum Book. I know not if they are worthy of your Acceptance. They were written as the Occaſion prompted, ſometimes when reading, ſometimes when walking, and not unfrequently have I left Company for a Minute or two, to ſeize a ſtray Thought that ſoon would have wandered out of my Pate. Without ſuppoſing that mine are very deſerving of Notice, I cannot but think that if Men would more frequently commit to Paper the particular Sentiment that occurs on the Spur of any particular Occaſion, ſomething might be collected, worthy of more ſerious Peruſal.—Meantime I wiſh to be conſidered in no ſuperior Light than that of a humble

GLEANER.

IN the conduct and improvement of our minds, ſome things are to be ſuppreſſed, or modified by ſober reaſon, and others cultivated and promoted with even a degree of enthuſiaſm. Of the firſt, are the inferior appetites which we enjoy in common with the brutes; and of the laſt are the emotions of ſympathy, benevolence, and magnanimity. Moſt men have propenſities and feelings peculiar to themſelves; and the ſtudy of human nature is nothing elſe but the ſtudy of our own hearts, which we moſt accurately attain to by obſerving the thoughts and actions of others, and deducing analogical inferences.

Philoſophers have puzzled themſelves how to define man, ſo as to diſtinguiſh him from other animals. Burke ſaid, man is an animal that cooks its victuals. Then ſaid Johnſon, the proverb is juſt, 'there is *reaſon* in roaſting eggs'—Dr. Adam Smith has hit this caſe. Man is an animal which contracts, or makes a bargain: no other animal does this. One dog does not exchange a bone with another.

The Tatler, ſpeaking of the tragedy of the Earl of Eſſex, ſays, that there is not one good line in it, and yet it is never ſeen without drawing tears from ſome part of the audience; a remarkable inſtance that the ſoul is not to be moved by *words* but things; for the incidents in this drama are laid together ſo happily, that the ſpectator makes the play for himſelf, by the force of his imagination.

Many of the moderns are of opinion that *letters* are unfriendly to the delicacy and virtue of women. See Stewart's View of Society in Europe, Sect. 3.—Nichols ſpeaks with greater warmth on this ſubject, in the preface to his ſelection of Scottiſh ballads. Among the ancients, Tacitus and Salluſt mention ignorance of letters as a leading and neceſſary feature in the character of pure times. But all this may eaſily be refuted. No woman was ever the worſe for knowing too much; a ſmattering may make her vain, indeed. As to 'happy ignorance,' as ſome have termed it, it may be the characteriſtic of the ſavage ſtate, but every wiſe man will prefer the civilized ſtate with all its diſadvantages.

Nettleton ſays, that 'Every repreſentation of calamity, from which we are ſecure, yields a ſecret delight.'—This is, to ſay the leaſt, a ſingular opinion. Neither the repreſentation of feigned diſtreſs, nor the relation of real miſery, from which we are *ſecure*, gives us pleaſure. A good man ſympathizes, and ſympathy is a pain; if it were not, the world would not applaud good men on account of it. We crowd to repreſentations of fictitious diſtreſs with eagerneſs, but ſtill the diſtreſs affects us, ſometimes to a dangerous

dangerous degree. The pleaſure we receive, if we receive any, ariſes from our admiring extraordinary talents for imitation. There is a wonderful difference between the man who criticiſes, and him who feels. The one ſees Mrs. Siddons only; the other, Iſabella.

Fabricius, a divine of the laſt century, pretends that there are no ſuch people as are without the knowledge of a Deity, and a ſenſe of religion. Either he lived in very good times, or we live in very bad.

The ancient and the modern miſer are two different beings. The modern miſer receives no little encouragement from the nature of our preſent commercial conſtitutions. The national funds are a ſchool of avarice. The miſer's money, when depoſited there, accumulates without his help, while he enjoys, at the ſame time, the moſt perfect aſſurance that it is ſafe. Formerly he laid up his riches, 'where thieves might break through and ſteal.' The imprudent diſtreſſes of others are likewiſe a rich fund for him; he is paid, even for an act of kindneſs, ſhould he be capable of it.

The moſt remarkable inſtance of zeal for mental purſuits which we have upon record, is that of Democritus, who, as Cicero informs us, made himſelf blind, that he might not be diverted from his ſtudies, by trivial objects preſenting themſelves to his eyes. His friends, as friends now-a-days would probably do, ſent him to Hippocrates to be cured of madneſs. Archimedes, though not literally blind, was yet ſo intent on his mathematical figures, as not to *ſee* that Syracuſe was taken, and himſelf a priſoner.

Shafteſbury has a fine thought on Shakſpeare. By the juſtneſs, ſays he, of his moral, the aptneſs of his deſcriptions, and the plain and natural turn of his ſeveral characters, he pleaſes his audience, and gains their ear, 'without a ſingle bribe from luxury or vice.'—Were Shakſpeare to reviſit this globe, the firſt thing that would ſurpriſe him would be, to learn that above one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds have lately been devoted toward ſplendid editions of his works. Whether he would think himſelf indebted to his numerous *commentators*, is doubtful.

There ought to be an exact correſpondence, in poetry, between language and ſentiments. Sublime expreſſion with ſublime ſentiment; familiar thoughts with familiar language: ſerious thoughts require a ſerious ſtyle, and attempts at humour muſt have a humorous choice of words. In a poem that fell in my way ſometime ago, the author ſpeaks of the 'projecting grace of the aſpect.'—Who would think that he meant the *noſe?*

In Muſcovy, an ancient author informs us, that men and women who are to be married, never ſee each other, until the knot is indiſſolubly tied. Were this the caſe in England, would the proportion of unhappy marriages be augmented or diminiſhed?

There is *ſome* truth in what Rouſſeau ſays of learned men, and he knew it by experience. Take from the learned, the pleaſure of being heard, and their love of knowledge would vaniſh. They do not ſtudy to obtain wiſdom, but the reputation of it; philoſophy would have no charms, if the philoſopher had no admirers.

What, ſays an old author, is it that daughters learn from their mothers? Why, to dreſs their heads; to ſet a toilet in nice order, to match ribbons, and adjuſt other trinkets; to ſmile agreeably, and make a pretty lip; to bend the body backward; to hold up the head; to ſtop with a briſk air; to caſt glances at people over the ſhoulder; to affect giving themſelves pretty airs.—Surely this is downright ſcandal!

Some men think that the happineſs of the married life will be certain, if they can procure a wife of their own diſpoſition and way of thinking. I am, ſays a humouriſt, for a wife who has a ſpice of the devil in her. I never

never knew a houſe large enough to hold two people who thought alike.

Dryden has ſpoiled all his tragedies by giving them rhymes. It was then the fashion to follow Corneille and Racine. It is always a misfortune for a man to be obliged to temporize with the bad taſte of his age.

Few can be cheerful who do not partake of ſome of the amuſements of the world; and no man can be well employed, who does not take part in ſome of its uſeful occupations or ſtudies. An idle man is a dead man. Lord Cheſterfield ſaid of himſelf, and of another old nobleman, incapacitated by age and infirmity, 'We have been dead for ſome time, but we don't like that the world ſhould know it.'

Thoſe who ſacrifice every thing to *ſtyle*, ought to remember that if, in a picture, the ſtory be well choſen, and well told; if it fill the mind with noble and inſtructive ideas; it is an excellent picture, though the drawing be as incorrect as that of Correggio, Titian, or Rubens; and the colouring as diſagreeable as that of Polidore, Batiſta Franco, or Michael Angelo.

It is our buſineſs rather to enlarge than contract our enjoyments, while conſiſtent with virtue. It is not, therefore, our intereſt to have ſo very refined a taſte in general, as to be pleaſed only with a few things, which are rarely to be found. One *friend* may be enough, but a man muſt not be too faſtidious in his choice of acquaintances. There are few but have ſome good quality.

Alliteration is a figure which may be introduced occaſionally with great beauty and propriety. Johnſon often uſes it, and never improperly. But the too frequent introduction of it ſpoils the ſtyle, and is truly ridiculous. The following lines are no bad ſarcaſm on redundant alliterations:

'Rough repetition roars in rudeſt rhyme,
'As clappers clinkle in one charming chime.'

The character of Dr. Tindal, the famous infidel, is well known. Two gentlemen being in company with him, one ſwore an oath, 'by God.'—Huſh! ſaid the other, don't ſwear, for here is Dr. Tindal, who believes in no God, and he will be affronted.

When burleſque verſes were firſt introduced into France, they were uſed on all occaſions. One bold writer publiſhed, '*La Paſſion de notre Sauveur en vers burleſque.*'—Dupont, or Danton, would have given this man the kiſs of fraternity.

One obvious defect in our laws is, that ſo many villains of the moſt atrocious characters live under the protection of them. Perhaps the tares cannot be removed without injuring the wheat.

I have read ſomewhere of a man, 'who would have been as juſt as he was, if there had been no laws, and as prudent as he was, if calumny had never been known.' This is the man of genuine *principle*.

In Venice, the beaux appear in the playhouſe with maſks, to give the audience an opinion of their gallantry. Here they appear with boots, to give us an opinion of their horſemanſhip.

Voltaire greatly admired M. de Buffon, but he could not approve of poetical deſcriptions in a body of Natural Hiſtory, or allow that an account of the horſe, or the aſs, ſhould be written in the ſtyle of Telemachus. It might be urged in anſwer, that M. de Buffon, naturally eloquent, followed his own genius, without any great regard to the ſcience on which he treated, and that we eaſily pardon a writer, for laviſhing ornaments on a ſubject which appears, in its own nature, dry and unintereſting.

It has been ſaid, that mademoiſelle de l'Enclos preſerved her beauty to the age of eighty. Voltaire, who had ſeen her in the latter part of her life, ſays, that ſhe was dried up like a mummy; ſhe was, adds he, a wrinkled ſkeleton, with a yellow or almoſt black ſkin covering her bones. This would appear to be the true ſtate of the caſe.

Among the Mexicans, *drunkenneſs* in youth was a capital offence: young men were put to death by the baſtinado in priſon, and young women were ſtoned to death. In men advanced in years, although not capital, it was puniſhed with ſeverity: if a nobleman, he was ſtripped of his office and rank, and rendered infamous: if a plebeian, they ſhaved him (a puniſhment very ſenſibly felt by the Mexican) and demoliſhed his houſe, ſaying that he who could voluntarily bereave himſelf of his ſenſes, was not worthy of an habitation among men. This law did not forbid conviviality at nuptials, or at any other times of feſtivity; on ſuch occaſions it being lawful, in private houſes, to drink more than uſual; nor did the law affect old men of ſeventy years, who, on account of their age, were allowed to drink as much as they pleaſed.

Dr. Barrow ſays, that by a uſual and appoſite manner of ſpeaking, our tenour of life is called a *way*; our converſation *walking*; our actions, *ſteps*; our obſerving good laws *uprightneſs*, our tranſgreſſing of them *tripping*, *faltering*, *falling*.

If any thing proves the extreme power of the mental faculties over man, it is what paſſes within him, when his countenance glows with anger. A word, or a look, diſcompoſes his whole being. Theſe, as ſudden in their effects as the action of light, drive the blood from one extremity to the other; it ruſhes from the ſmalleſt capillary veſſel to redden his forehead and animate his eyes. So rapid a phyſical revolution is operated by ſentiment and thought in the twinkling of an eye.

Madame de Maintenon is a ſtriking proof of the value attached to public opinion, and of the ſtrong inclination we have to appear ſuperior to others. 'The deſire,' ſays ſhe, 'of having a name, was my paſſion.' Nobody ever carried it ſo far. This ambition made me ſuffer martyrdom by a thouſand conſtraints which I put upon myſelf.'—She ſhut herſelf up with a woman who had the ſmallpox, without being certain ſhe herſelf had ever had it. 'A little pity,' ſhe ſays, 'at firſt inclined me to it; afterward a ſtrong deſire to do a thing which nobody elſe had ever done.'

——'Ne me verboſi ſcrinia Lippi
'Compilaſſe putes—verbum non amplius addam.'

REMARKS *during a* SIX WEEKS RESIDENCE *in* Oxfordſhire *and* Glouceſterſhire, *in* 1792: *In a Series of Letters to a Friend.*

LETTER II.

Oxford, Auguſt 1792.

DEAR SIR,

I ENTERED Oxford by Magdalen Bridge, which, beſide the beauty of its architecture, has this ſingularity, that more than half of it is over dry ground, and the reſt covers two ſmall ſtripes of the Cherwell. *United*, theſe might form ſome apology for a bridge of five hundred and twenty-ſix feet long. Stukely tells us, that the old bridge here was twice as broad as London Bridge; but this is an aſſertion, which I hope we may be permitted to doubt, without riſking the imputation of obſtinate ſcepticiſm.

When I was in this city about ten years ago, my ſtay was unavoidably ſhort, but yet enough to ſatisfy me that there is no place in this kingdom which affords greater ſcope for the exerciſe of thought, or more variety of objects for the indulgence of curioſity. An aſcetic life is not favourable to either of theſe purpoſes. Solitary thinkers are apt to indulge prejudices; their means are ſcanty; their horizon circumſcribed. Perpetual ſolitude is the priſon of the mind. But, to think much, and to think to any valuable purpoſe, it is neceſſary frequently to ſhift our ſituation, to move from place to place, to ſee and hear all that can be ſeen and heard. Re-

tirement after this will be productive, for we ſhall then have the means to render it ſo.

It is impoſſible to view this place, without a crowd of ideas ruſhing into the mind, from which it is equally impoſſible to abſtract ourſelves, and which it will require no inconſiderable trouble to arrange. Our aſſociations are numerous, our ſenſations are lively, our remembrances important, when we view the ſeat of ancient magnificence and early literature; when we are on the very ſpot which the muſes firſt deigned to honour, and which their favourite ſons have, in all ages, contended to adorn; when we behold the perfection of thoſe rude beginnings, which ſignalized the memory of Alfred, and trace the progreſs of enlightened ſcience, from the groſſneſs of a monkiſh ſuperſtition to the completion of a pure religion, and a liberal philoſophy. How various are our recollections, and how intereſting our thoughts, while here contemplating what time has produced, and what hiſtory has preſerved!

We cannot eaſily diveſt our minds of the love of what is ancient in the ſchools of literature. Ancient and *venerable* ſeem to be connected in the ſame idea. If we *could* be cold and inſenſible to the monuments of learned zeal and patriotiſm, what ſhould we gain? What ſhould we gain by a contemptuous abſtraction from the retroſpect of former days? What ſhould we gain by calculating how much might have been ſaved, if all theſe lofty Gothic and Grecian remains had been plain buildings, without ornament and without ſtability? No, my dear ſir, let not *us* deſtroy the monuments of learned munificence, which have been ſpared by the moſt barbarous ages.

The deſire of carrying the hiſtory of nations, and remarkable cities, to the remoteſt ages of antiquity, is a foible (perhaps among the moſt harmleſs) of which no people have yet diveſted themſelves. It is amuſing to examine the attempts which have been made to prove the very high antiquity of Oxford. Anthony Wood has done much this way; but Anthony, who had upon the whole more candour than thoſe, who take his character at ſecond-hand, are diſpoſed to allow, declares that he had no great confidence in his authorities. Rouſe, the Warwick antiquary, thinks, or rather ſays, that this noble city exiſted near one thouſand years before Chriſt, and whimſically compares Oxford to Jeruſalem, becauſe Mount Calvary was ſituated without the walls of Jeruſalem, as Mount Pleaſant, or Bellemont, is without the walls of Oxford. I know not to what claſs of veriſimilitudes I ought to refer this, but it affords a ſpecimen of the national vanity of rude ages. *Ex uno diſce omnes.*

We may, however, from the maſs of traditional abſurdities, carefully ſifted, very juſtly infer, that Oxford, as a ſchool of what learning the times afforded, was known before the reign of Alfred, and with this, as Cambridge is of far later date, the Oxonians are now, I believe, perfectly well contented. From tolerable good authority, we are informed, that about the time of the conqueſt, Oxford contained ſeven hundred and fifty dwelling houſes. In the year 1200, it abounded with ſo many ſcholars, that three thouſand of them departed at one time in conſequence of ſome diſcontent. But it appears to have been a duty in parents to ſend their ſons to Oxford, in times much earlier than this; for there is an exiſting law of Alfred, which enjoined, that 'all freemen of our kingdom, whoſoever, poſſeſſing two hides of land, ſhall bring up their ſons in learning, till they be fifteen years at leaſt, that ſo they may be trained up *to know God*, to be *men of underſtanding*, and to *live happily*; for of a man that is born free, and yet illiterate, we repute no otherwiſe than of a beaſt, or a brainleſs body, and a very ſot.'

The learning of this place, however, for many centuries, produced

but an imperfect knowledge of God, very few men of underſtanding, and no great bulk of happineſs. Oxford was frequently diſtracted by diſputes between the ſcholars and townſmen, and between the foreign and Engliſh ſcholars, which always ended in blows, and more than once in foul murders. In the earlier years of the univerſity, the ſtudents did not reſide in colleges, but in houſes hired for the purpoſe. When the maſter hired a houſe, it was called a *Hall*, and he the *Principal* of it. In fact, our univerſities were at firſt merely ſchools, the ſcholars were taught only certain elementary principles, and it would be in vain to trace the extent of a learning which, before the invention of printing, was confined to religious houſes, and had neither form nor conſiſtency.

I will not, therefore, trouble you with inveſtigations, which you can purſue to better purpoſe at your leiſure.—No place in England can boaſt of ſuch artificial ſcenery as Oxford. It contains twenty colleges, and five halls. When to theſe you add the churches, and the public buildings belonging to the univerſity, ſuch as the ſchools, the muſeum, theatre, &c. and conſider that theſe are diſperſed over a city not three miles in circumference, you may form ſome idea of the ſatisfaction which a view of Oxford gives. In parts, objections muſt occur, but as a whole, there is nothing in this nation that can be compared to it. It is peculiar to Oxford, that, from the manner in which the public buildings are ſcattered over the city, the eye can turn no where without encountering an object of ſtriking grandeur. Nor is the effect of this momentary. It is heightened and varied by reflection. He whoſe mind is accuſtomed, and here, in a certain degree, forced to look back on paſt ages, will not be unmoved by the continued contemplation of thoſe venerable monuments of piety, learning and public ſpirit. The piety of the founders, if miſtaken, was ſincere; their learning, if ſcanty, was proportioned to their means; and their public ſpirit will, I truſt, be applauded where it is not imitated. Legacies and benefactions that are more conſiderable than as teſtimonies of gratitude and good-will, have long ceaſed; and though improvements are now in progreſſion, they derive but little aſſiſtance from titled patronage, and noble munificence. *Publicam magnificentiam depopulatur privata luxuria.* The ſum that would have formerly built a college is now ſcarcely ſufficient to furniſh a ſtable. You know my principles too well to ſuppoſe that I draw theſe reflections from the ſpleen of democracy; but I cannot hear, without indignation, that the * * * *, who never performed a generous action, has expended thirty thouſand pounds on a dog-kennel. If ſuch men *do* poſſeſs vanity, or ambition, are they not idiots?

But to wave this—My firſt viſit was paid to the univerſity library, called the *Bodleian*, from the name of its founder, a name more dear to the lovers of literature, than thoſe of all the heroes that ever exiſted. I have ſpent much time in this place, and although I have no inclination to trouble you with particulars which every body knows, it would be unpardonable not to ſay ſomething of the greateſt library in Europe. It conſiſts of three large galleries erected over the divinity ſchool. There was formerly a library here, eſtabliſhed by Humphrey duke of Glouceſter; but, in the reign of Edward VI, the books were ſtolen or deſtroyed. From that time to the end of the ſixteenth century, there was nothing that deſerved the name of library. At the latter period, ſir Thomas Bodley, a learned and accompliſhed perſon, retired from public life, to devote his days to the erection of the preſent library. He had every requiſite for the formation of ſuch a collection. He had learning, money, friends, leiſure, and, what gave energy to all, a requiſite portion of noble enthuſiaſm. In two

years,

years, he furniſhed the library with books to the value of 10,000l. moſtly purchaſed in foreign countries. His example was eagerly followed by other men of learning; but he did not live to ſee the completion of his work. By his will, he bequeathed a conſiderable ſum for the ſupport of the library; but, owing to the folly or fraud of his executor, this was greatly diminiſhed. Grateful for this valuable addition to the uſefulneſs of Oxford, the univerſity hailed him as the founder, and gave his name to the library.

England is remarkable for its zeal in promoting grand and extenſive projects, almoſt as ſoon as they are propoſed. The deſire to be uſeful, and perhaps the love of fame, produced a ſucceſſion of valuable benefactions to the Bodleian library; the laſt of which that is worth particular notice, was conferred in 1755, by Dr. Richard Rawlinſon, the antiquary, who bequeathed all his books, and a valuable muſeum to this library.

In its preſent ſtate, the Bodleian is ſuppoſed to contain above fifty thouſand volumes. Large whole numbers, ſays Dr. Johnſon, are generally wrong. In this caſe, the error, as far as I can gueſs, is on the right ſide. There are more than this number, and if, according to ſome, it falls ſhort of the Vatican, it exceeds it in one reſpect, in its collection of Oriental manuſcripts. Of Arabic books, the Eſcurial is, I believe, the largeſt collection in Europe. The new caſes in the Bodleian are filling very faſt, and I was pleaſed to find that the curators are making valuable additions of new and coſtly works. The order in which the books are arranged is rather objectionable, and it is neceſſary to ſtudy the catalogue with great attention, before one can find any particular book.

The picture galley is hung with the portraits of the founders of the colleges, and of other eminent and learned men. Some of theſe are the works of the firſt maſters. They have lately been cleaned.

The library next in the number and value of its contents is that of All Souls College: this library, though confeſſedly inferior in theſe reſpects to the Bodleian, is ſuperior to it in the magnificence of the building, and, in what is of yet greater conſequence, the arrangement of the books. The room in which the books are kept, is one of the moſt ſplendid in the whole univerſity; it meaſures two hundred feet in length, thirty-two in breadth, and forty in height. Theſe proportions would not be, however, ſo pleaſing, if they were continued the whole length of the room; but there is a receſs in the middle fifty-one feet broad, which forms an imaginary ſquare, in the center of which is placed the ſtatue of colonel Codrington, the founder. Over the book-caſes are placed bronzes of the ſeveral benefactors.

The books here are arranged *in ſciences*, and by this mode (which, by the bye, is the moſt ſimple and convenient in all reſpects) any work may be found with eaſe, and with very little help from the catalogue. Vaſt additions of modern as well as ancient and expenſive books, and books of plates, have lately been made to this library. In the courſe of a few years, it will certainly excel any other collection, both in numbers and value, if we except the Bodleian. There is a fund of 300l. a year for this purpoſe; but I believe a part of this ſum is paid to the librarian and under librarian for their trouble.—The gallery in which the upper claſs of books is placed, extends along three ſides of the library; but the ſpace for walking is too narrow, and the baluſtrade too low. It is impoſſible to uſe the ladders for reaching the upper ſhelves, without an idea of danger, which few could bear even for a moment.

I know not whether the library of Chriſt's Church does not rank next to All Souls. Its collection is very numerous and valuable.—Queen's, New College, St. John's, Exeter, and Corpus, the latter for claſſic authors, are noble repoſitories. The library-room

of

of Corpus is dark and gloomy, reſembling rather a lumber garret, but the inner room, in which the archives and curioſities are kept, amply repays the viſitor. The collection of *Principes editiones* of the claſſics in this library is preſerved with great care. I looked at a manuſcript hiſtory of the Bible in French, beautifully illuminated. In its paſſage from France, a volume of it was ſecreted by the maſter of the ſhip, and never afterward recovered. It is not improbable that he had ſpoiled it by ſome accident, and was afraid to produce it. An *amateur*, in a fit of covetouſneſs, would not have been contented with a *part* only.

When his majeſty was here, a few years ago, he obſerved an edition of a claſſic author in this library, which he had not in his own; on his return, his majeſty enjoined his bookſellers to procure it. They aſſured him that no ſuch edition exiſted: 'You are miſtaken,' anſwered his majeſty, 'go to Corpus library, and you may ſee it.' It is well known that our ſovereign's talents as a ſcholar, are far above mediocrity; and of his knowledge of books it would be eaſy to give many ſpecimens.

With reſpect to the general ſtate of the Oxford libraries, I am happy to ſay, that from what I obſerved, and from the information I was able to pick up, they have been of late very much improved and enriched by frequent purchaſes. The preſent curators, or guardians, or by whatever name you pleaſe to call them, ſeem in general (for there are exceptions) to fulfil the intentions of the founders, as far as their funds will admit of: for Oxford (any thing to the contrary notwithſtanding) has not much more wealth than her neceſſities demand.

In one of the libraries, I obſerved ſeveral hundred volumes, lying in heaps on the floor. Theſe I was told were duplicates, and were to be diſpoſed of, and the money applied in the purchaſe of ſuch books as were not in the library. *Good!* you will ſay. But a queſtion has been ſtarted both here and at Cambridge, whether the ſelling ſuch books be not contrary to the will of the donors, and ſo far illegal and improper, and whether perſons who intend to bequeath their collections to theſe libraries, may not depart from this intention, when they find that the gifts of former benefactors are thus diſpoſed of. There is ſomething to be ſaid on both ſides. No man who beſtows a library on one of theſe colleges, can be ſuppoſed ſo far diſintereſted as not to expect that it ſhall be appropriated to the uſe of that college, exactly as he has appointed; nor is it, again, any objection to a benefactor, if he ſhould cheriſh a hope that his name may be handed down to poſterity, as a friend to literature, and a grateful and dutiful ſon to his *alma mater*. On the other hand, as moſt of theſe libraries contain three, four, five, or more copies of the ſame book, it appears to be *indirectly* fulfilling the purpoſe of the donors, if the produce of ſuch books can be appropriated to enrich the library. I know not whether, at Oxford, this queſtion has been decided in favour of the ſale*. At Cambridge, I was told, that it was given againſt it. Perhaps a middle courſe might be taken. May not theſe duplicates be brought together to form a new library, or to add to thoſe which comparatively are but in their infancy? Yet even here the ſacred reſpect due to the will of a beneficent teſtator forms an objection. A late donor, aware that he ſhould do nothing, if he gave to the college what it already poſſeſſed, accumulated during his lifetime, at much expence and care, a collection of ſuch books as were wanting to the library, which he wiſhed to increaſe, and bequeathed it on his death.

I have extended this letter to ſuch a length, as you muſt allow requires ſome reſt both for the reader and the writer. I ſhall therefore poſtpone what I have to obſerve on the Radcliffe, &c.—Meantime, I am, &c.

* I have ſince been informed that theſe duplicates were ſold in London.

ON RIDICULE.

THE poſition laid down by the earl of Shafteſbury, that '*ridicule is the teſt of truth*,' has given riſe to various diſputes of ſome conſequence in the literary and moral world. Thoſe writers who have ſupported his lordſhip's opinion, have nevertheleſs endeavoured to ſoften the ſentiment, ſo as not wholly to exclude *reaſon* from its proper office as the criterion of truth; and thoſe who have oppoſed his poſition, have at the ſame time carried it farther, than it is but fair to conjecture, the noble author meant that it ſhould go. He was certainly no friend to revealed religion, and a fondneſs for parodox affected his ſentiments, as well as his ſtyle. If from his writings we abſtract the 'Inquiry on Virtue;' the 'Moraliſts,' and his 'Advice to an Author,' little will remain to intereſt the taſte or the opinions of the preſent age.

With reſpect to ridicule, it muſt be obſerved, that two diſtinctions neceſſarily preſent themſelves. There is a great difference between a *riſible object*, and a *ridiculous one*. The former produces laughter merely; the latter is improper as well as riſible, and is therefore attended with a degree of contempt and diſapprobation. A late writer, ſpeaking of lord Shafteſbury's poſition, with ſome reſpect for that nobleman's talents, ſays, that the proper queſtion is, not whether ridicule be the teſt of truth, but whether the *ſenſe* of ridicule be the proper teſt for diſtinguiſhing ridiculous objects from thoſe which are not ſo. And this appears to me to be no unfair method of ſtating the caſe, and terminating a diſpute which has long agitated the public mind.

To make ridicule *the* teſt of truth would be, in the firſt place, to diſcard reaſon, which all men poſſeſs in a ſufficient degree to enable them to recognize truth, when fairly laid before them in a train of evidence, and to ſubſtitute a *ſenſe*, that is, the ſenſe of ridicule, which few men comparatively poſſeſs. That which is to be determined by a ſenſe, as, for example, the ſenſe of beauty, ſublimity, or ridicule, cannot be the province of reaſon; and we know that a *ſenſe*, which is in other words, a taſte for the beautiful, the ſublime, &c. belongs to few, unleſs highly cultivated minds. When a man admires the beauties of a piece of art, or the ſublimities of a ſcene of nature, his admiration does not ariſe from his having argued, or reaſoned himſelf into it, but merely from the ſenſe he poſſeſſes of beauty, grandeur, and ſublimity. And theſe ſenſes muſt always be the *teſts*, by which he judges of other objects. Accordingly, poſſeſſing the ſenſe of grandeur, it is impoſſible for him not to prefer certain objects to others, without calling in the aid of reaſon; it is impoſſible for him to prefer St. James' Palace to St. Paul's Cathedral; or for a moment to ſuppoſe that Windſor Caſtle does not excel, in grandeur and ſublimity of ſituation, the Tower of London. Should any perſon contradict him, he cannot by any train of reaſoning vindicate his opinion. He can only appeal to ſome third perſon, who poſſeſſes the ſenſe of grandeur, and who follows thoſe rules of taſte, however fanciful, which regulate our choice in ſuch matters. Gilpin very elaborately accounts for his giving a decided preference to the view of Goodrich caſtle on the Wye; but he is not *reaſoning*, he is *deſcribing*, he is painting in *words*, if I may be allowed the expreſſion. It is *utility* only which can lead us to reaſoning, and *utility* is out of the queſtion in conſidering pictureſque beauty or ſublimity.

As the ſenſe of beauty and ſublimity is the proper teſt for diſtinguiſhing beauty from deformity, and grandeur from meanneſs, ſo the ſenſe of ridicule is the proper teſt for diſtinguiſhing ridiculous objects from ſuch as are ſerious and ſolemn.

It

It has been objected to lord Shaftesbury's position, that any ſubject, however ſerious, may be the ſubject of ridicule. In a certain degree this is true, that is, it is juſt as true as that any piece of gold may be the ſubject of a trial, but the baſe metal only can ſuffer by ſuch trial. A malefactor may laugh at ſomething odd in the conſtruction of the gallows, or the figure of the knot which is to put a period to his life; and a byeſtander may endeavour to turn the whole ceremony into ridicule; but what is the conſequence? Has the malefactor perſuaded his judges that it is abſurd to uſe a gallows and a rope? Has he perſuaded his brethren, who are to ſuffer with him, that hanging is a mere joke? Or has the byeſtander perſuaded the ſpectators to join in the laugh? Again; Homer and Virgil have been burleſqued by a kind of writing called *traveſty*, which has often provoked the laughter of readers, and perhaps of every perſon who has a reliſh for humour. But have the characters of Homer and Virgil ſuffered? Have the world, who have long poſſeſſed thoſe *traveſties*, ceaſed to think that Homer and Virgil are two of the greateſt poets of antiquity? No; in ſpite of all the burleſque and ridicule of traveſties, parodies, and other humorous attacks, Homer and Virgil continue to preſerve their reputations, and probably always will do ſo, at leaſt while a taſte for literature remains in any part of the globe. Who now talks of Zoilus, Mævius and Bavius?

But farther; religion, and its moſt ſacred and important myſteries, it is ſaid, may be ridiculed, and this ridicule may be dangerous. It is, however, paying religion but a ſorry compliment to ſuppoſe that a laugh can diſſipate what argument has eſtabliſhed. Not to ſpeak of the many vain attempts of modern infidels, of the ſneers of a Voltaire, or a Hume; we cannot but recollect that the enemies of Chriſtianity in the earlieſt ages, began their oppoſition to it by ridicule. The apoſtles and immediate diſciples of our Saviour were tried 'by cruel mockings.' This, however, did not affect the cauſe; and thoſe early infidels proceeded to more ſanguinary meaſures, the abſurdity of which has long been evinced.

The fact is, that in all ſuch caſes ridicule *may* be applied, but theſe are not the caſes where it is applicable. A man who profeſſes the opinions of truth, has no occaſion to dread the attacks of ridicule. It falls to the ground before truth. Death has been ridiculed in plays, poems, and in a thouſand ſhapes, but the fear of death has not been conjured away by ſuch charms. Ridicule may always be tried, and I will allow it to be the teſt of what is ridiculous, but no farther. Ridicule can no more render that ridiculous which was not ſo before, than an aſſayiſt can make that metal baſe which was pure before. If, in a ſeries of opinions belonging to a religious ſect, or a political party, any one of them ſhall not be able to hold up againſt the force of ridicule, that opinion we may be ſure is in itſelf untenable, and will be diſcarded; for that which will not bear ridicule, will not bear examination. It was thus that Eraſmus, by his dialogues, contributed to expoſe the deluſions of popery and jeſuitiſm. It was thus that Cervantes aboliſhed knight-errantry. Neither of theſe authors ſet reaſon aſide; but they knew that what is in itſelf truly ridiculous can beſt be proved to be ſo by ridicule.

It is poſſible, that a man of libertine principles may throw ſuch a ridicule on the moſt ſacred and important truths, on the crucifixion, for inſtance, as to excite even from a believer, a momentary laugh. But this will never be attended with conviction, and therefore the ridicule muſt fall to the ground. Some men have ſo rich a vein of humour, ſuch a quick ſenſe of the ridiculous, that they are not afraid to attack any ſubject, and are often ſo ignorant as not to perceive that they are wholly miſapply-

ing

ing their talent. In private life, diſtreſs is often accompanied with circumſtances that are mean and vulgar, and apt to excite a ſmile from thoſe who are not immediately intereſted. To avoid this, on the ſtage, diſtreſs is always accompanied by circumſtances of pomp and grandeur; a queen dies in her royal robes; and a hero ſinks into the arms of death with all the gracefulneſs of a dancing maſter.

When, however, we find that this overflowing ſenſe of ridicule which ſome men poſſeſs, has diſcovered nothing truly ridiculous, we become convinced that they have received a defeat, and a defeat which raiſes the object of their attack higher in our opinion, preciſely as we are convinced that the metal which has paſſed the ordeal is perfectly pure, whereas we entertain doubts of that which has not been ſubjected to the trying proceſs. Although, therefore, we cannot but entertain a very ſorry opinion both of the head and heart of him, who is fond of applying ridicule to objects of ſacred and eternal importance, yet there is nothing to be apprehended from ſuch efforts. Truth is that ſtrong fortreſs which cannot be taken by ſtorm, or treachery; it will yield neither to force nor famine.

But it may be ſaid, I am afraid with too much reaſon, that many men, and eſpecially young men, have been *ridiculed* out of their religion and their virtue; and that by the mere force of ridicule only, they have been rendered infidels and profligates. How then can ridicule be the teſt of truth? Ridicule is no leſs and no more the teſt of truth now than it was before. Not one of thoſe men were acted upon by ridicule as a teſt of truth. Where ridicule operates in diſtinguiſhing truth from falſehood, proper from improper, neceſſary from uſeleſs, it muſt produce *conviction*. Now in the caſe before us it produced only *ſhame*. It is a very common thing for young men, in the outſet of life, to be *ſhamed* out of their morals, and all the ridicule applied is perhaps merely a horſelaugh, a thing very diſtant from true and legitimate ridicule, which conſiſts in placing an object in ſuch lights as plainly ſhew that it is left naked of all reaſon and argument, and is in itſelf uſeleſs, contemptible, or improper. Profligates, indeed, are ſeldom poſſeſſed of the talent for ridicule, but a few of them agreeing to ſupport each other in laughing at religion or morality, to promote ſome nefarious purpoſe, may no doubt ſoon produce that falſe ſhame which has, I fear, prompted many an ingenuous youth to embrace a life of ruin, without ever examining into principles. In another light, this may be conſidered as, at leaſt, the abuſe of ridicule, the abuſe of one of nature's gifts, which may, no doubt, be applied, like her other gifts, to good and valuable purpoſes.

Where, for inſtance, abſurd opinions are maintained contrary to all ſenſe and reaſon, ridicule may be uſed with the happieſt effect. The belief in witchcraft, aſtrologers, cunning men, &c. is a proper object for ridicule; many abſurdities of dreſs have been expelled by the ſame means; and ridicule has been employed in the ſervice of right reaſon and thinking. It is here certainly the teſt of truth, but as it is a weapon that few can wield with grace, propriety and diſcretion, and as it inflicts wounds, which tend to hurt the pride and excite the paſſions of the ſufferers, it is not to be uſed until every other has failed. I would in no caſe *begin* with ridicule, becauſe I would not treat a well-meaning man, as if he were a fool, or one only to be laughed at. But if to folly be added obſtinacy, and if his obſtinacy led him to imprudent actions, the operation of ridicule might be tried with advantage, and has often ſucceeded when every other method failed. Ridicule, as I have already obſerved, has been tried on all religious opinions, but let us examine what it has aboliſhed,

and what it has left us, and we ſhall find that it has not brought into diſcredit any one opinion which can be juſtified by the force of ſound reaſoning.

We may be certain that if a man be well grounded in his opinions on any ſubject, if he has not haſtily taken them up, but has fairly and impartially examined them, he has nothing to fear from ridicule. He may comply with Shafteſbury's humour, and admit ridicule to be the teſt of truth, becauſe if he has previouſly employed *reaſon*, all ridicule will be in vain. If, on the other hand, he is a ſuperficial thinker, and has given himſelf no trouble to examine into the grounds of his opinions, ridicule will defeat *him*, although it can have no effect upon them. *He* may retire from the battle, like a beaten coward, but the arms which he ought to have wielded are not the worſe for his diſuſe of them.

'As, however, this cloſe examination of principles is not ſo common as it ought to be, and as the young particularly, who are in moſt danger of being perverted, have not, perhaps, had time to arrange their opinions, and prepare for the defence of them, ridicule is ſo far, in bad hands, a very dangerous thing; and I am afraid has been often employed in the baſeſt ſervices, to confound the innocent and ignorant, to pervert the wavering, and to ſhame the ingenuous from a regular and virtuous courſe. What they have to account for who thus pervert the talent of ridicule, what is the extent of their crime, and what ought to be the meaſure of their puniſhment, is not for me to expreſs or determine.

I ſhall conclude this ſubject with Dr. Johnſon's opinion of the queſtion, which, although it differs from mine, may be worthy of as much attention at leaſt; for it is a ſubject which affords much argument every way. In his life of Akenſide, Dr. Johnſon calls this an *idle* queſtion, which I cannot think it. His words are: 'The reſult of all the arguments which have been produced in a long and eager diſcuſſion of this idle queſtion, may eaſily be collected. If ridicule be applied to any poſition as the teſt of truth, it will then become a queſtion whether ſuch ridicule be juſt; and this can only be decided by the application of truth, as the teſt of ridicule. Two men, fearing, one a real and the other a fancied danger, will be for a while equally expoſed to the inevitable conſequences of cowardice, contemptuous cenſure and ludicrous repreſentation; and the true ſtate of both caſes muſt be known, before it can be decided whoſe terror is rational, and whoſe is ridiculous; who is to be pitied, and who is to be deſpiſed. Both are for a while equally expoſed to laughter, but both are not therefore equally contemptible.'

G.

ON THE GLORY OF A NATION.

AS it is during the progreſs of war that the *glory* of the nation becomes a general topic of converſation, and is a powerful incitement to action, the following remarks on the ſubject will not, it is hoped, appear unſeaſonable.

The glory of a nation depends entirely on its powers, and forms conſequently a conſiderable part of it. It is this ſhining advantage that procures the eſteem of other nations, and renders it reſpectable to its neighbours. A nation whoſe reputation is well eſtabliſhed, and principally that whoſe glory is illuſtrious, is courted by all ſovereigns: they deſire the friendſhip of its ſovereign, and are afraid of offending him. His friends, and thoſe who wiſh to become ſo, favour his enterpriſes, and the envious dare not ſhew their ill-will. It is, then, of great advantage for a nation to eſtabliſh its glory and reputation; and

and hence this becomes one of the most important of those duties which it owes to itself. True glory consists in the favourable opinion of men of wisdom and discernment: it is acquired by virtue, or the qualities of the mind and the affections, and by the great actions that are the fruit of these virtues. A nation may deserve it from a double title; first, by what it does in its national character, by the conduct of those who have the administration of its affairs, and are invested with its authority and government; and, secondly, by the merit of the persons of whom the nation is composed.

A prince, a sovereign, whoever he is, that owes every thing entirely to the nation, is doubtless obliged to extend its glory, as far as it is in his power. His duty is to labour after the perfection of the state, and of the people who have submitted to him; and by this means he will make them merit a good degree of reputation and glory. He ought always to have this object in view in every thing he undertakes, and in the use he makes of his power. Let justice, moderation, and greatness of soul shine in all his actions, for by this means he will procure to himself and his people, a name respected by the universe, and not less useful than glorious. The glory of Henry IV saved France: in the deplorable state in which he found affairs, his virtues encouraged his subjects, gave strangers the boldness to lend him their assistance, and to enter into an alliance with him against the ambitious Spaniards. A prince weak, and but little esteemed, would have been abandoned by all the world; people would have been afraid of being involved in his ruin.

Beside the virtues that are the glory of princes, as well as of private persons, there is a dignity and decorum that particularly belong to the supreme rank, and which a sovereign ought to observe with the greatest care. He cannot neglect them without degrading himself, and stamping a blemish on the state. Every ray that beams from the throne, ought to bear the characters of purity, nobleness, and grandeur. What an idea do we conceive of a people, when we see the sovereign show in public acts, a meanness of sentiment, with which a private person would think himself dishonoured? All the majesty of the nation resides in the person of the prince; what then must become of it, if he prostitutes it, or suffers it to be prostituted by those who speak and act in his name?

The reputation of private persons is diffused on the nation, from a manner of speaking and thinking equally common and natural. In general we attribute a virtue or a vice to a people, when that virtue, or vice is very frequently observed among them. We say that a nation is warlike, when it produces a great number of brave warriors; that it is learned, when there are many learned men among the citizens; and that it excels in the arts, when it produces many able artists. The citizens, who are obliged to labour with all their power to promote the welfare and advantage of their country, not only owe to themselves the care of deserving a good reputation; but they also owe it to the nation, whose glory is so capable of being influenced by theirs. On the other hand, a good citizen will find a new motive to abstain from every dishonourable action, from the fear of the dishonour that may be reflected on his country. And the prince ought not to suffer his subjects to give themselves up to vices that may cast infamy on a nation, or only tarnish the brightness of his glory; he has a right to suppress and to punish scandalous enormities, that do a real injury to the state.

Since the glory of a nation is a very great advantage, it has a right to defend it; as well as any other advantages. He who attacks its glory, does it an injury; and it has a right to demand, even by force of arms, a just reparation. We cannot

then condemn thoſe meaſures, ſometimes taken by ſovereigns to maintain or revenge the dignities of the crown. They are equally juſt and neceſſary. When they do not proceed from too high pretenſions, attributing them to a vain pride, is ſhowing ourſelves greatly ignorant of the art of reigning, and deſpiſing one of the firmeſt ſupports of the grandeur and ſafety of a ſtate.

SELECT PASSAGES FROM SHAKSPEARE.

NUMBER XX.

WINTER's TALE.

Friendſhip between Kings.

Camillo.

SICILIA cannot ſhew himſelf overkind to Bohemia. They were trained together in their childholds; and there rooted betwixt them ſuch an affection, which cannot chooſe but branch now. Since their moſt mature dignities, and royal neceſſities, made ſeparation of their ſociety, their encounters, though not perſonal, have been royally attorneyed *, with interchange of gifts, letters, loving embaſſies; that they have ſeemed to be together, though abſent; ſhook hands, as over a vaſt; and embraced, as it were, from the ends of oppoſed winds. The heavens continue their loves!

Archidamus. I think, there is not in the world either malice, or matter, to alter it.

This paſſage is a beautiful deſcription of the rational, ſociable, and friendly intercourſe which uſed formerly to ſubſiſt between ſovereigns. The friendſhip between a king and any of his ſubjects may, in moſt caſes, be forbidden by the dictates of political wiſdom; becauſe it may degenerate into favouritiſm, and be productive of the worſt conſequences to the ſtate as well as to the ſovereign himſelf; of which a ſingle inſtance will ſuffice, in the melancholy hiſtory of our Edward the ſecond. But the caſe is very different between Sovereign and Sovereign; and no reaſons can be aſſigned why they ſhould not enjoy, as well as their ſubjects, one of the ſweeteſt, deareſt, and moſt virtuous enjoyments, a manly ſympathy of affections and intercourſe of ſouls. While a ſincere friendſhip ſubſiſts between two powerful kings, their ſubjects have a kind of reciprocal ſecurity againſt the hoſtilities of either ſtate; and in their reciprocal counſels and aſſiſtance, they may be equally protected againſt the attacks of other powers. The late unfortunate Peter the third had a friendſhip for the great Frederick of Pruſſia, which he carried almoſt to the verge of adoration. This friendſhip reſcued the ſubjects of the latter from the dreadful calamities of war, if not from utter extinction as a nation. On the other hand, the grateful Frederick, gave the moſt ſalutary counſels to his imperial friend: he adviſed him to treat the prejudices of his ſubjects with greater deference, to avoid offending the army by an avowed predilection for foreign troops, and to treat his conſort with the reſpect due to her exalted ſtation. Had theſe wiſe counſels been followed, the infatuated Peter would neither have been dethroned, nor impriſoned, nor ——.

The Love of Life.

Archidamus. You have an unſpeakable comfort of your young prince Mamillius: it is a gentleman of the greateſt promiſe that ever came into my note.

Camillo. I very well agree with you in the hopes of him. It is a gallant child; one that, indeed, phyſics the ſubject †, makes old hearts freſh: they, that went on crutches ere he was born, deſire yet their life, to ſee him a man.

Archidamus. Would they elſe be content to die?

* That is, nobly ſupplied by ſubſtitution of embaſſies, &c.

† Affords a cordial to the ſtate; has the power of aſſuaging the ſenſe of miſery.

Camillo.

Camillo. Yes; if there were no other excuſe why they ſhould deſire to live.

Archidamus. If the king had no ſon, they would deſire to live on crutches till he had one.

In this paſſage, how admirably are pointed out our fondneſs for life, and the pretences which we form, from time to time, for ſtill wiſhing to defer our departure hence, even at that late period when ſickneſs and infirmity may well be ſuppoſed to render our remaining days weariſome, if not painful. Young has a fine paſſage on this ſubject:

O my coëvals, remnants of yourſelves!
Poor human ruins, tottering o'er the grave!
Shall we, ſhall aged men, like aged trees,
Strike deeper their vile root, and cloſer cling,
Still more enamour'd of this wretched ſoil?
Shall our pale wither'd hands be ſtill ſtretch'd out,
Trembling, at once, with eagerneſs and age?
With avarice and convulſions, graſping hard?
Graſping at air! for what has earth beſide?

Perhaps moſt of our readers will recollect too the Poem of the Three Warnings, attributed to Mrs. Piozzi, as extremely applicable to this ſubject.

Youthful Friendſhip and Innocence.

Polixenes. We were, fair queen,
Two lads, that thought there was no more behind,
But ſuch a day to morrow as to-day,
And to be boy eternal.
We were as twinn'd lambs, that did friſk i' the ſun,
And bleat the one at the other: what we changed,
Was innocence for innocence; we knew not
The doctrine of ill-doing, nor dream'd
That any did. Had we purſued that life,
And our weak ſpirits ne'er been higher rear'd
With ſtronger blood, we ſhould have anſwer'd heaven
Boldly, Not Guilty; the impoſition clear'd
Hereditary ours *.

Polixenes, in thus deſcribing the youthful friendſhip that ſubſiſted between him and Leontes, deſcribes nothing peculiar to royalty. There is ſcarce a man, whatever be his rank in life, that does not ſometimes recollect the youthful ſcenes of ſportive innocence and pleaſure with tenderneſs and regret; and ſeldom has our bard more forcibly ſpoken the univerſal language of the human heart than in this beautiful ſpeech.

The ſilent Eloquence of Infancy.

We do not know
How he may ſoften at the ſight of the child;
The ſilence often of pure innocence
Perſuades, when ſpeaking fails.

This is part of the ſpeech of Paulina, the faithful friend of the unjuſtly accuſed queen Hermione, when ſhe propoſes to preſent the new-born daughter of Leontes before him, in hopes of ſoftening his reſentment againſt her mother. The mute eloquence of infant innocence, and its perſuaſive power, are here noted with great truth and juſtneſs.

Jealouſy.

Leontes. Is whiſpering nothing?
Is leaning cheek to cheek? Is meeting noſes †?
Kiſſing with inſide lip? Stopping the career
Of laughter with a ſigh? (a note infallible
Of breaking honeſty): Horſing foot on foot?
Skulking in corners? Wiſhing clocks more ſwift?
Hours, minutes? Noon, midnight? And all eyes
Blind with the pin and web ‡, but theirs, theirs only,

* That is, ſetting aſide *original ſin*; bating the impoſition from the offence of our firſt parents, we might have boldly proteſted our innocence to heaven.

† Dr. Thirlby reads *meting* noſes; that is, *meaſuring* noſes.

‡ Diſorders in the eye. See King Lear, Act III. Scene 4.

That

That would unſeen be wicked? Is this nothing?
Why, then the world, and all that's in't, is nothing?
The covering ſky is nothing; Bohemia nothing;
My wife is nothing; nor nothing have theſe nothings,
If this be nothing.

This ſpeech is one proof among many how eminently Shakſpeare excels on the ſubject of jealouſy. It muſt be an agreeable amuſement to his readers to compare him on this topic, and to find how different, yet excellent, he is every where. We have already pointed out ſome fine paſſages in Othello, on the ſlight circumſtances which awaken this baneful and corroding paſſion *. And its dreadful effects, when once excited, are thus deſcribed by Polixenes, when he finds himſelf unjuſtly ſuſpected by Leontes.

This jealouſy
Is for a precious creature: as ſhe's rare,
Muſt it be great; and, as his perſon's mighty,
Muſt it be violent; and as he does conceive
He is diſhonour'd by a man which ever
Profeſſed to him; why, his revenges muſt
In that be made more bitter.

The Knowledge of a Calamity only can render it painful.

Leontes. How bleſt am I
In my juſt cenſure †! in my true opinion!
Alack, for leſſer knowledge ‡! How accurſt
In being ſo bleſt! There may be in the cup
A ſpider ſteep'd ‖, and one may drink; depart,
And yet partake no venom; for his knowledge
Is not infected: but if one preſent
The abhorr'd ingredient to his eye, make known
How he hath drunk, he cracks his gorge, his ſides,
With violent hefts §. I have drunk, and ſeen the ſpider.

The reader will find a paſſage ſimilar to this in Othello, where that unhappy deluded man, lamenting his knowledge of his wife's ſuppoſed ſtolen hours of infidelity, exclaims:

I had been happy, if the general camp,
Pioneers and all, had taſted her ſweet body,
So I had nothing known: oh now for ever,
Farewel the tranquil mind, &c.

Hermione's Defence.

If powers divine
Behold our human actions (as they do),
I doubt not then, but innocence ſhall make
Falſe accuſation bluſh, and tyranny
Tremble at patience. You, my lord; beſt know,
(Who leaſt will ſeem to do ſo) my paſt life
Hath been as continent, as chaſte, as true,
As I am now unhappy; which is more
Than hiſtory can pattern, though devis'd,
And play'd, to take ſpectators: for, behold me,
A fellow of the royal bed, which owe ¶
A moiety of the throne, a great king's daughter,
The mother to a hopeful prince—here ſtanding,
To prate and talk for life, and honour, 'fore
Who pleaſe to come and hear. For life, I prize it **

* See No. X. in our Magazine for March 1792.

† Cenſure, in the time of our author, was generally uſed, as in this inſtance, for judgment, opinion.

‡ That is, O that my knowledge were leſs!

‖ This was a notion prevalent in Shakſpeare's time. That ſpiders were then eſteemed venomous, appears from the evidence of a perſon examined concerning the murder of ſir Thomas Overbury: 'The counteſſe wiſhed me to get the ſtrongeſt poiſon that I could: accordingly I bought *ſeven great ſpiders*, &c.'

§ That is, heavings.

¶ That is, *poſſeſs*, or *own*.

** Life is to me now only grief, and as ſuch only is conſidered by me; I would therefore willingly diſmiſs it.

As

As I weigh grief, which I would ſpare *:
for honour,
'Tis a derivative from me to mine,
And only that I ſtand for.

The beautiful ſentiment in the concluding lines is probably borrowed from the Son of Sirach: 'The glory of a man is from the honour of his father; and a mother in diſhonour is a reproach unto her children †. There is the dignity of conſcious virtue, as well as of high birth and exalted rank, throughout the whole ſpeech of the injured queen; and the concluſion of it, in particular, muſt draw tears of ſympathy from every virtuous mother, and thoſe of remorſe from the vicious and abandoned.

Sudden Repentance and Remorſe.

Servant. O ſir, I ſhall be hated to report it:
The prince your ſon, with mere conceit and fear
Of the queen's ſpeed ‡, is gone.
Leontes. How! gone?
Servant. Is dead.
Leontes. Apollo's angry; and the heavens themſelves
Do ſtrike at my injuſtice. [Her. *faints*] How now there?
Paulina. This news is mortal to the queen: Look down,
And ſee what death is doing.
Leontes. Take her hence:
Her heart is but o'ercharg'd: ſhe will recover.
I have too much believ'd mine own ſuſpicion.
'Beſeech you, tenderly apply to her
Some remedies for life. [*Exeunt Paulina, &c.*] Apollo, pardon
My great profaneneſs 'gainſt thine oracle!
I'll reconcile me to Polixenes;
New-woo my queen; recall the good Camillo;
Whom I proclaim a man of truth, of mercy;
For, being tranſported by my jealouſies
To bloody thoughts and to revenge, I choſe
Camillo for the miniſter, to poiſon
My friend Polixenes: which had been done,
But that the good mind of Camillo tardy'd
My ſwift command; though I with death, and with
Reward, did threaten and encourage him,
Not doing it, and being done; he, moſt humane,
And fill'd with honour, to my kingly gueſt
Unclaſp'd my practice; quit his fortunes here,
Which you knew great; and to the hazard
Of all incertainties himſelf commended,
No richer than his honour. How he glifters
Thorough my ruſt! And how his piety
Does make my deeds the blacker!

This vehement retraction of Leontes, accompanyed by the confeſſion of more crimes than he was ſuſpected of, is agreeable to our daily experience of the viciſſitudes of violent tempers, and the eruptions of minds oppreſſed with guilt. Nor can any thing be more ſtrongly depicted here, than the awful *revealing* nature of a guilty conſcience, which is apt to anticipate every proof of its crime, by a voluntary confeſſion of it.

The meek Submiſſion of true Penitence.

Leontes. Go on, go on:
Thou canſt not ſpeak too much; I have deſerv'd
All tongues to talk their bitterеſt.

This, inſtead of having her thruſt out of his preſence, was the ſubmiſſive language of Leontes to Paulina, who was inveighing againſt his conduct with the utmoſt virulence. Afterward; when ſhe ſeems to relent of her ſeverity toward him, on finding him repentant (although, the moment before, ſhe had told him, that neither repentance nor penance would avail him) he proceeds:

Thou didſt ſpeak but well,
When moſt the truth; which I receive much better

* To *ſpare* any thing is to let it go, to quit the poſſeſſion of it.
† Eccluſ. iii. 11.
‡ That is, of the *event* of the queen's trial: ſo we ſtill ſay, he *ſped* well or ill.

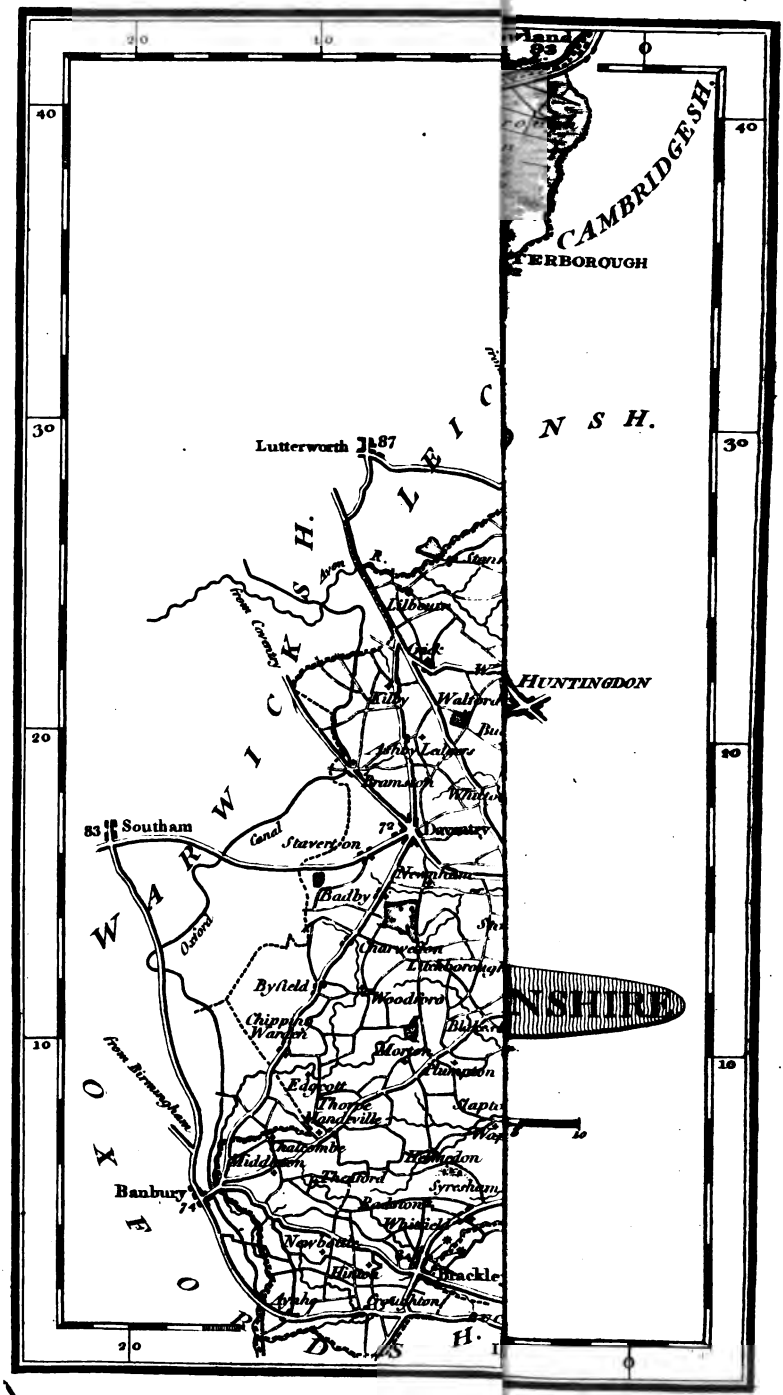
Than

Than to be pitied of thee. Prythee, bring me
To the dead bodies of my queen and ſon:
One grave ſhall be for both; upon them ſhall
The cauſes of their death appear, unto
Our ſhame perpetual. Once a day I'll viſit
The chapel where they lie; and tears, ſhed there,
Shall be my recreation: ſo long as nature
Will bear up with this exerciſe, ſo long,
I daily vow to uſe it. Come, and lead me
To theſe ſorrows.

Shakſpeare, whoſe diſtinguiſhing excellence is the perfect knowledge he every where diſplays of the human mind, evinces it more particularly in this paſſage, by ſhewing a property in our nature which might have eſcaped a ſuperficial obſerver; and this is, our ſuffering, upon true conviction and repentance, not only every degree of reproach with meekneſs and ſubmiſſion, but even encouraging and augmenting that reproach, by joining in our own condemnation. Perhaps this may ariſe from a ſtrong impreſſion, that ſuch a voluntary penance may be ſome kind of expiation for guilt, in the ſight both of God and man.

An HISTORICAL ACCOUNT *of the* CITY *and* PORT *of* TOULON, *in* FRANCE.

TOULON is a celebrated city and ſeaport of France, in that part of the late province of Provence, which is now denominated the department of the Var. It is a very ancient place; having been founded, according to the common opinion, by a Roman general. It is the chief town of the department, and, before the great revolution in 1789, was an epiſcopal ſee. The inhabitants are not computed at more than 80,000; which is not to be wondered at, when we reflect, that it experienced the dreadful ravages of the plague three times in the fifteenth century, in 1418, 1461, and 1476; once in the ſixteenth, in 1587; four times in the ſeventeenth, in 1621, 1630, 1647, and 1664; and once in this century, in 1720. It is divided into the Old Quarter and the New Quarter. The firſt, which is very ill-built, has nothing remarkable in it but the Rue aux Arbres (the Tree Street) which is a kind of courſe or mall, and the town-houſe: the gate of this is ſurmounted by a balcony, which is ſupported by two termini, the maſterpieces of the famous Pujet. The New Quarter, which forms, as it were, a ſecond city, contains, beſide the magnificent works conſtructed in the reign of Lewis XIV, many fine houſes, among which, that of the late Seminary, merits beyond compariſon the preference, and a grand oblong ſquare, lined with trees, and ſerving as a parade. The harbour, reſpecting theſe two quarters, is diſtinguiſhed likewiſe by the names of the Old Port or the Merchants Port, and the New Port or the *King's Port*; but this laſt appellation has vaniſhed with the late abolition of royalty, and univerſal deſtruction of all its ſymbols, in this diſtracted country. The Merchants Haven, along which extends a noble quay, on which ſtands the town-houſe, is protected by two moles, which were begun by Henry IV. The New Haven was conſtructed by Lewis XIV, as were the fortifications of the city. In the front of this haven, is an arſenal, containing all the places neceſſary for the conſtruction and fitting out of veſſels: the firſt object that appears is a rope walk, entirely arched, extending as far as the eye can reach, and built after the deſigns of Vauban: here cables are made, and above is a place for the preparation of hemp. Here likewiſe is the armoury, for muſquets, piſtols, halberds, &c. In the park of artillery, are cannons placed in piles, bombs, grenades, mortars, and balls of various kinds, ranged in wonderful order.



CAMBRIDGESH.
TERBOROUGH
N S H.
Lutterworth
87
L E I C
W A R W I C K S H.
Avon R.
from Coventry
Lilbourn
Kilby
Walford
HUNTINGDON
Ashby Ledgers
Bramston
Whilton
83
Southam
Canal
Stavertson
72
Daventry
Newnham
Badby
Oxford
Charwelton
Byfield
Woodford
NSHIRE
Chipping Warden
Morton
Plumpton
from Birmingham
Edgcott
Thorpe Mandeville
Chalcombe
Middleton
Helmedon
Banbury
74
Thenford
Syresham
Radstone
Whitfield
Newbottle
Hinton
Brackley
Ayahe
Cryughton
O X F O R D S H.

The long ſail room, the foundery for cannon, the dockyards, the baſins, &c. are all worthy of obſervation.

The galleries, transferred from Marſeilles ſome years ago, occupy at Toulon a ſecond baſin in the New Port. Many of the galley-ſlaves are artizans, ſome merchants, and, which is the moſt wonderful, of ſcrupulous integrity. They no longer ſleep on board the gallies, but have been lately provided with accommodations on ſhore, in a vaſt building, newly erected for that purpoſe. Toulon is the only mart in the Mediterranean, for the re-exportation of the products of the Eaſt Indies. This place was deſtroyed, toward the end of the tenth century, and pillaged by the African pirates almoſt as ſoon as rebuilt. The conſtable of Bourbon, at the head of the Imperial troops, obtained poſſeſſion of it in 1524, as did Charles V in 1536; but, in the next century, Charles Emanuel, duke of Savoy, could not enter it; and prince Eugene, in 1707, ineffectually laid ſiege to it.

Both the Old and New Port have an outlet into the ſpacious outer road or harbour, which is ſurrounded by hills and formed by nature almoſt circular. Its circuit is of very great extent, and the entrance is defended, on both ſides, by a fort with ſtrong batteries. In a word, the baſins, docks, and arſenal at Toulon warranted the remark of a foreigner that viſited them in the late reign; that 'the king of France was greater there than at Verſailles.' Toulon is ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, in 5° 57″ eaſt longitude, and 43° 7″ north latitude. It is 17 leagues ſouth-eaſt of Aix, 15 ſouth-eaſt of Marſeilles, and 217 ſouth-eaſt of Paris.

An Account of NORTHAMPTONSHIRE: *With a neat and accurate* MAP *of that County.*

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE is bounded on the north-weſt by Leiceſterſhire and Rutlandſhire, on the north by Lincolnſhire; on the eaſt by the counties of Cambridge, Huntingdon, and Bedford; on the ſouth by Bucks and Oxfordſhire; and on the weſt by that county and Warwickſhire. It lies in the dioceſe of Peterborough; is divided into twenty hundreds, containing one city, twelve market-towns, and 330 pariſhes; and ſends nine members to parliament. The air of this county is very healthy, except in the north-eaſt part near Peterborough, which being ſurrounded and interſected by rivers, is very liable to inundations, and forms the commencement of the fenny tract extending to the Lincolnſhire Waſhes. With this ſingle exception, Northamptonſhire is, in a manner, proverbially regarded as a fine and pleaſant county; an opinion, confirmed by the number of ſeats of the nobility and gentry which it contains. Its greateſt defect is a ſcarcity of fuel, which is but ſcantily ſupplied by its woods, which, like thoſe in all other parts of the kingdom, have been much diminiſhed by agriculture; and though ſea-coal is admitted into this county by the river Nen, it is at a very dear rate. Northamptonſhire, however, poſſeſſes ſome conſiderable remains of its old foreſts, particularly thoſe of Rockingham on the north-weſt and of Salcey and Whittlebury on the ſouth. The products of Northamptonſhire are, in general, the ſame with thoſe of other farming countries. It is, indeed, peculiarly celebrated for grazing land; that tract eſpecially, which lies from Northampton northward to the Leiceſterſhire border. Horned cattle, and other animals, are here fed to extraordinary ſizes; and many horſes of the large black breed are reared. Wood for the dyers is cultivated in this part; but the county is not diſtinguiſhed for manufactures. The principal rivers are the Nen and Welland; beſide which it is partly watered by the Ouſe, Leam, Cherwell, and Avon. The county-town is of the ſame name.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, Auguſt 1793.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	30,21	57	65,5	48	1	W 1	hazy
	2	30,21	70	68	44,5	4	W 1	. fine
2	7	30,21	60,5	66	47,5	1	S 1	hazy
	2	30,12	72	69,5	43.5	3	E 2	
3	7	29,91	63,5	68	51,5	2	E 1	
	2	29,82	76	72	43,3	3	E&E 2	. cloudy. thunder and much rain. cloudy night
4	7	29,72	62	68	48,5	3	SW 2	. cloudy
	2	29,76	65	69	42,5	4	S 3	. leſs wind
5	7	29,96	60	67	48	5	S 1	. fine
	2	29,98	70,5	70	42	4	S 2	. ſhowers. fine
6	7	30,09	59	67	46,5	1	W 2	
N	2	30,18	68	69	40	3	WNW 1	
7	7	30,18	58	66	49,5	1	N 1	hazy: cloudy
	2	30,09	70	69	42,5	4	E 3	. thunder and much rain. fine night: little
8	7	29,87	60	66,5	50,5	5	S 1	little rain: more wind and fine [rain
	2	29,86	71	69,5	42,5	3	WSW 3	
9	7	29,84	61	66,5	47,5	3	SW 2	
	2	29,82	66,5	60	44	4	WSW 2	. cloudy night. little rain
10	7	29,83	62,5	67,5	50	4	WSW 2	. fine
	2	29,87	71	70	47,5	3	SW 3	. leſs wind and clear night
11	7	30,08	56	65,5	46,5	2	W 1	
	2	30,08	68	68	39	3	WSW 1	. clear night: cloudy
12	7	30,11	54	65	44	4	W 1	. fine
	2	30,07	70,5	69	40	3	SSE 2	
13	7	29,95	61,5	66,5	46,5	4	SSE 1	. fine and more wind
	2	29,91	78	72	41,5	3	SW 3	. leſs wind and gentle rain. fine eve
14	7	30,06	57	66	45,5	1	WSW 1	
	2	29,99	70,5	69	39	3	SW 3	. leſs wind: cloudy
15	7	29,73	59,5	66	47	5	SSW 1	little rain at times
	2	29,49	65	68,5	45,5	4	S 3	. leſs wind at night
16	7	29,67	57,5	66	46,5	2	WSW 1	. more wind
	2	29,76	66,5	68	40	3	W 3	. leſs wind and clear eve: little rain
17	7	29,66	57,5	65	50,5	5	SE 1	much rain. fine: ſtormy ſhower
	2	29,39	62	66	49	5	S 2	chiefly rain and windy night: leſs wind and [fair
18	7	29,71	55	64,5	50	5	NW 2	
	2	29,96	60	65	44,5	4	W 2	. fine
19	7	30,11	53,5	61	49,5	4	W 1	. fine
	2	30,23	66	66,5	43	3	SSW 1	. clear night
20	7	30,20	53	58	48	1	NNW 1	. fine
	2	30,22	67	66	41	2	W 1	
21	7	30,32	58	64	48	2	WNW 1	hazy
F	2	30,32	72	69,5	44	2	W 2	
22	7	30,24	58,5	66	48	4	W 1	fine
	2	30,14	73,5	69,5	43	2	WSW 1	: cloudy
23	7	30,03	62,5	67	50	5	SW 1	. leſs cloudy
	2	30,00	70	70	44	3	SW 1	
24	7	30,11	55	65	44	3	W 1	
	2	30,11	65,5	67	40	4	WNW 1	. fine eve
25	7	30,20	53	62	45	1	NW 1	
	2	30,22	64	65,5	40	2	N 1	
26	7	30,13	62,5	62	50	2	SE 1	. cloudy: fine
	2	30,03	68	68	40	3	SE 2	. cloudy night. fine
27	7	29,96	54,5	62	45,5	1	WSW 1	. more cloudy
	2	29,98	65	66	39	4	W 2	. fine night
28	7	29,98	62,5	59,5	49	4	W 2	
	2	30,09	67	66,5	43	5	W 1	. little rain at times
29	7	30,09	56,5	63,5	44,5	3	W 1	
	2	30,01	66	66	41	1	W 1	: cloudy. little rain
30	7	29,83	57,5	64	49	3	SSW 1	: little rain
	2	29,78	62	66	46	4	SW 1	. fine: cloudy. little wet
31	7	29,79	57,5	66	46	5	WSW 1	little rain at times: fine
	2	29,77	62	66,5	44,5	3	WSW 2	. thunder ſtorm. fine: cloudy

Observations *on the* Diseases *in* August 1793.

THE diſeaſes of this month differed ſo little from thoſe of the laſt, as ſcarcely to merit particular notice. Inflammatory ſore throat ſtill continued frequent, but the moſt prevailing complaints were *cholera morbus* and diarrhœa; they yielded very readily to the moſt gentle remedies, and were ſeldom diſeaſes of more than two or three days duration. Scarlet fever now and then occurred, but with no peculiar ſymptoms; and toward the latter part of the month, ſmallpox became more frequent, and was pretty generally confluent.

On Natural Beauty: *An Eſſay.*

BY Natural Beauty, or the beauty of natural objects, is to be underſtood that quality or thoſe qualities in the works of nature, or more properly of God, which are calculated to excite pleaſing ſenſations in the minds of all ſuch perſons of true taſte as attentively obſerve them. 'That ſenſibility to beauty,' ſays Dr. Percival, 'which, when cultivated and improved, we term taſte, is univerſally diffuſed through the human ſpecies; and it is moſt uniform with reſpect to thoſe objects, which being out of our power are not liable to variation from accident, caprice, or faſhion. The verdant lawn, the ſhady grove, the variegated landſcape, the boundleſs ocean, and the ſtarry firmament, are contemplated with pleaſure by every attentive beholder. But the emotions of different ſpectators, though ſimilar in kind, differ widely in degree; and to reliſh with full delight the enchanting ſcenes of nature, the mind muſt be uncorrupted by avarice, ſenſuality, or ambition; quick in her ſenſibilities; elevated in her ſentiments; and devout in her affections. He who poſſeſſes ſuch exalted powers of perception and enjoyment, may almoſt ſay, with the poet,

I care not, Fortune! what you me deny;
You cannot rob me of free Nature's grace;
You cannot ſhut the windows of the ſky,
Through which Aurora ſhows her brightning face;
You cannot bar my conſtant feet to trace
The woods and lawns, by living ſtream, at eve:
Let health my nerves and finer fibres brace,
And I their toys to the great children leave:
Of fancy, reaſon, virtue, nought can me bereave.

'Perhaps ſuch ardent enthuſiaſm may not be compatible with the neceſſary toils and active offices which Providence has aſſigned to the generality of men. But there are none to whom ſome portion of it may not prove advantageous; and if it were cheriſhed by each individual, in that degree which is conſiſtent with the indiſpenſable duties of his ſtation, the felicity of human life would be conſiderably augmented. From this ſource, the refined and vivid pleaſures of the imagination are almoſt entirely derived: and the elegant arts owe their choiceſt beauties to a taſte for the contemplation of nature. Painting and ſculpture are expreſs imitations of viſible objects; and where would be the charms of poetry, if diveſted of the imagery and embelliſhments which ſhe borrows from rural ſcenes? Painters, ſtatuaries, and poets, therefore, are always ambitious to acknowledge themſelves the pupils of nature; and as their ſkill increaſes, they grow more and more delighted with every view of the animal and vegetable world. But the pleaſure reſulting from admiration is tranſient; and to cultivate taſte, without regard to its influence on the paſ-

ſions and affection, 'is to rear a tree for its bloſſoms, which is capable of yielding the richeſt and moſt valuable fruit.' Phyſical and moral beauty bear ſo intimate a relation to each other, that they may be conſidered as different gradations in the ſcale of excellence: and the knowledge and reliſh of the former ſhould be deemed only a ſtep to the nobler and more permanent enjoyments of the latter.

'Whoever has viſited the Leaſowes, in Warwickſhire, muſt have felt the force and propriety of an inſcription which meets the eye at the entrance into thoſe delightful grounds,

Would you then taſte the tranquil ſcene?
Be ſure your boſoms be ſerene;
Devoid of hate, devoid of ſtrife,
Devoid of all that poiſons life:
And much it 'vails you, in their place,
To graft the love of human race.

'Now ſuch ſcenes contribute powerfully to inſpire that ſerenity which is neceſſary to enjoy and to heighten their beauties. By a ſecret contagion, the ſoul catches the harmony which ſhe contemplates; and the frame within aſſimilates itſelf to that which is without. For,

Who can forbear to ſmile with Nature? Can
The ſtormy paſſions in the boſom roll,
While every gale is peace, and every grove
Is melody?

'In this ſtate of ſweet compoſure, we become ſuſceptible of virtuous impreſſions, from almoſt every ſurrounding object. The patient ox is viewed with generous complacency; the guileleſs ſheep with pity; and the playful lamb raiſes emotions of tenderneſs and love. We rejoice with the horſe, in his liberty and exemption from toil, while he ranges at large through enamelled paſtures; and the frolics of the colt would afford unmixed delight, did we not recollect the bondage which he is ſoon to undergo. We are charmed with the ſong of birds, ſoothed with the buzz of inſects, and pleaſed with the ſportive motions of fiſhes, becauſe theſe are expreſſions of enjoyment; and we exult in the felicity of the whole animated creation. Thus an equal and extenſive benevolence is called forth into exertion; and having felt a common intereſt in the gratifications of inferior beings, we ſhall be no longer indifferent to their ſufferings, or become wantonly inſtrumental in producing them.

'It ſeems to be the intention of Providence, that the lower order of animals ſhould be ſubſervient to the comfort, convenience, and ſuſtenance of man. But his right of dominion extends no farther; and if this right be exerciſed with mildneſs, humanity, and juſtice, the ſubjects of his power will be no leſs benefited than himſelf. For various ſpecies of living creatures are annually multiplied by human art, improved in their perceptive powers by human culture, and plentifully fed by human induſtry. The relation, therefore, is reciprocal between ſuch animals and man; and he may ſupply his own wants by the uſe of their labour, the produce of their bodies, and even the ſacrifice of their lives, while he co-operates with all gracious heaven in promoting happineſs, the great end of exiſtence.

'But though it be true, that partial evil, with reſpect to different orders of ſenſitive beings, may be univerſal good; and that it is a wiſe and benevolent inſtitution of nature, to make deſtruction itſelf, within certain limitations, the cauſe of an increaſe of life and enjoyment; yet a generous perſon will extend his compaſſionate regards to every individual that ſuffers for his ſake; and, while he ſighs

Even for the kid or lamb that parts its life
Beneath the bloody knife,

he will naturally be ſolicitous to mitigate pain, both in duration and degree, by the gentleſt modes of inflicting it.

'We are inclined to believe, however, that this ſenſe of humanity would ſoon be obliterated, and that the heart would grow callous to every ſoft impreſſion, were it not for the benignant influence

influence of the ſmiling face of nature. The count de Lauzun, when impriſoned by Louis XIV, in the caſtle of Pignerol, amuſed himſelf during a long period of time with catching flies, and delivering them to be devoured by a rapacious ſpider. Such an entertainment was equally ſingular and cruel; and inconſiſtent, we believe, with his former character, and his ſubſequent turn of mind. But his cell had no window, and received only a glimmering light from an aperture in the roof. In leſs unfavourable circumſtances, may we not preſume, that inſtead of ſporting with miſery, he would have releaſed the agoniſing flies, and bid them enjoy that freedom of which he himſelf was bereaved?

'But the taſte for natural beauty is ſubſervient to higher purpoſes than thoſe which have been enumerated: and the cultivation of it not only refines and humaniſes, but dignifies and exalts the affections. It elevates them to the admiration and love of that Being who is the author of all that is fair, ſublime, and good in the creation. Scepticiſm and irreligion are hardly compatible with the ſenſibility of heart which ariſes from a juſt and lively reliſh of the wiſdom, harmony, and order ſubſiſting in the world around us: and emotions of piety muſt ſpring up ſpontaneouſly in the boſom that is in uniſon with all animated nature. Actuated by this divine inſpiration, man finds a fane in every grove; and, glowing with devout fervour, he joins his ſong to the univerſal chorus, or muſes the praiſe of the Almighty, in more expreſſive ſilence. Thus they

'Whom Nature's works can charm, with God himſelf
Hold converſe; grow familiar, day by day,
With his conceptions; act upon his plan;
And form to his, the reliſh of their ſouls.'

On the whole then, it certainly appears, that the advantages reſulting from a taſte for natural beauties are great and important: it is equally certain, that as it is uſeful, ſo it is a continual ſource of real enjoyment; for a more rational pleaſure cannot poſſibly occupy the attention or captivate the affections of mankind, than that which ariſes from a due conſideration of the works of nature. Pleaſure, we know, is a neceſſary ingredient in human life, in order in ſome meaſure to counterbalance the pains, the evils, and liſtleſſneſſes, which are at times perhaps unavoidable, and in order to render life tolerable. It is the part then of the moraliſt, and it has been frequently his buſineſs, to point out and recommend ſuch pleaſures as are highly gratifying, and are yet perfectly innocent. The Spectator, whoſe works will be admired as long as the language in which they are written is underſtood, recommends ſtrongly and elegantly the pleaſure of a garden; and a later writer, of no common degree of merit, and of very conſiderable fame, has an eſſay on the ſame ſubject. From which we ſhall ſelect a few obſervations, and ſo conclude the article. 'Not he alone (ſays this elegant writer) is to be eſteemed a benefactor to mankind, who makes an uſeful diſcovery; but he alſo who can point out and recommend an innocent pleaſure. Of this kind are the pleaſures ariſing from the obſervation of nature; and they are highly agreeable to every taſte uncorrupted by vicious indulgence. Rural ſcenes of almoſt every kind are delightful to the mind of man. But the misfortune is, that the greater part are hurried on in the career of life with too great rapidity to be able to give attention to that which ſolicits no paſſion. The darkeſt habitation in the dirtieſt ſtreet of the metropolis, where money can be earned, has greater charms with many than the groves of Hagley.

'The patron of refined pleaſure, the elegant Epicurus, fixed the ſeat of his enjoyment in a garden. He was of opinion, that a tranquil ſpot, furniſhed with the united ſweets of art and nature, was the beſt adapted

to

to delicate repoſe. And even the ſeverer philoſophers of antiquity were wont to diſcourſe in the ſhade of a ſpreading tree, in ſome cultivated plantation. It is obvious, on intuition, that nature often intended ſolely to pleaſe the eye in her vegetable productions. She decorates the flowret that ſprings beneath our feet in all the perfections of external beauty. She has clothed the garden with a conſtant ſucceſſion of various hues. Even the leaves of the tree undergo a pleaſing viciſſitude. The freſh verdure which they exhibit in the ſpring, the various ſhades which they aſſume in ſummer, the yellow and ruſſet tinge of autumn, and the nakedneſs of winter, afford a conſtant pleaſure to a lively imagination. From the ſnow-drop to the moſs-roſe, the flower garden diſplays an infinite variety of ſhape and colour. The taſte of the floriſt has been ridiculed as trifling; yet ſurely without reaſon. Did nature bring forth the tulip and the lily, the roſe and the honeyſuckle, to be neglected by the haughty pretender to ſuperior reaſon? To omit a ſingle ſocial duty for the cultivation of a polyanthus were ridiculous as well as criminal; but to paſs by the beauties laviſhed before us, without obſerving them, is no leſs ingratitude than ſtupidity. A bad heart finds little amuſement but in a communication with the active world, where ſcope is given for the indulgence of malignant paſſions; but an amiable diſpoſition is commonly known by a taſte for the beauties of the animal and the vegetable creation.'

An Account of the MANNERS *and* CUSTOMS *of the* INHABITANTS *of* Cochin China, *in* Aſia.

[From the Abbe Rochon's Voyage to Madagaſcar, and the Eaſt Indies.]

COCHIN-CHINA is a kingdom of Aſia, which is bounded by that of Tonquin on the north, by the Indian Ocean on the eaſt, by Chiampa on the ſouth, and Cambodia on the weſt. This country has been hitherto little known to the Europeans. The inhabitants, compared with the Indians, are brave, active, and induſtrious. They are fond of truth, and cloſely adhere to it when they know it. They are, however, poor and ignorant; but extremely polite to each other, and to ſtrangers. They have a great eſteem for the Chineſe, on account of their learning; and they call their empire Moedaiminh, or the kingdom of light: but ſince the miſſionaries have reſided among them, they ſeem to have a greater reſpect for the Europeans. The king, above all, is very fond of them; and encourages them to frequent his ports for the ſake of carrying on commerce with them. The Cochin-chineſe are much addicted to women; and polygamy is allowed among them. A man generally has as many wives as he can maintain; and the law gives him great authority over them, as well as over his children. Women convicted of infidelity to their huſbands are condemned to be expoſed to the fury of elephants. The women, who are not remarkable for their modeſty, go quite naked to the middle; and they publicly bathe, without any ceremony, in the view of every body. In their perſons, the Cochin-chineſe have a great reſemblance to the Chineſe, except that they are more tawny: their women are beautiful and very fair. Their dreſs is the ſame as that which was uſed in China before the irruption of the Tartars. The Mandarins of letters in Cochin-china have adopted the Japaneſe dreſs. They preſerve their hair, on which they ſet great value, and particularly the women, ſome of whom have it ſo long that it reaches to the ground.

The

The religion of this country is the same as that of China. The people frequent pagodas erected in honour of Fo-hi and Tchoua, and their mandarins of letters go to the temple of Confucius, who is their master, as well as that of the Chinese. At present the Christian religion is tolerated, and makes great progress. Some princes and mandarins of the first rank are Christians. We may reckon that there are about sixty thousand people in the whole kingdom who have embraced the Christian religion.

All the learning of the Cochin-chinese consists in their being able to read Chinese books, and in acquiring a knowledge of the morality which they contain. It is this knowledge which qualifies them for becoming mandarins.

Cochin-china is only a chain of mountains, the valleys and plains between which are well cultivated. The eminences are abandoned to tygers, elephants, and other animals of various kinds. The mountains, though uncultivated, are covered with woods and forests, the timber of which is of great utility. The Cochin-chinese procure from them rose-wood, ebony, iron-wood, sapan, the cinnamon-tree, calembouc, sandal-wood, and in general all those kinds of wood which are used in India for constructing houses, barks, and furniture; or from which gum, balm, and perfumes are extracted. I have even heard it asserted by some of the natives, that the clove-tree is to be found in these mountains.

The Cochin-chinese procure also from their mountains various other productions, such as honey, wax, rattans, and gamboge. They find there likewise, ivory, and even gold, in pretty large quantities. Mines of this metal are very abundant. The most celebrated are those of the province of Cham, situated in a place called Phunrae, where the French missionaries have a church, and where there are a great number of Christians. This place is about eight leagues distant from Faifo. There are other famous mines in the province of Naalang. Every body, even foreigners, are allowed to work these mines; and they would be very productive, did the inhabitants of the country give themselves the trouble to dig them; but there are few people who choose to apply to this labour, and those who do so are very ignorant of the art of mining. They never dig deeper than the height of a man. In the place where I saw them at work, masses of pure gold, perfectly free from the mixture of extraneous bodies, and weighing two ounces, are sometimes found. This gold, collected in dust or small fragments, is afterward formed into cakes, and carried to market, where it is sold like other merchandise. The usual price of it, according to the Chinese value, is a hundred and thirty quans; but it has been sold sometimes for a hundred and seventeen. A great many mines of iron, which in this country is sold at a dear rate, are found also in the mountains.

Land in Cochin-china, when cultivated, is extremely fertile, and the people reap every year two crops of rice, which is sold almost for nothing. This country abounds with all the fruits of India, such as ananas, mangoes, citrons, oranges, and with many others peculiar to itself. It produces also plenty of pepper, together with arec and betel. Arec, in several provinces, forms the principal riches of the inhabitants; and large quantities of it are every year sold to the Chinese, who come hither to procure it. They have also abundance of cotton; but they are not acquainted with the art of making it into fine cloth. They cultivate mulberry trees, upon which they feed silk-worms, and manufacture a kind of coarse silk-stuffs. They do not, however, succeed but in some kinds of satin. Raw silk in here sold at a very dear rate: a Cochin-chinese foot costs sometimes two hundred quans. The Cocin-chinese sugar is un-

undoubtedly the fineſt in India, and this article alone brings immenſe ſums from the Chineſe merchants, who carry cargoes of it from Faifo to Canton and Japan, where they gain at leaſt four hundred per cent. by it. The beſt is ſold for four quans the Cochin-chineſe foot. It is almoſt all made in the province of Cham, near Faifo. The Cochin-chineſe cut their canes before the end of three years, and have a crop annually in the autumn. None of thoſe kinds of grain which we have in Europe grow in Cochin-china, except maize, or Turkey corn. It produces neither wheat, barley, nor rye, and even few peaſe or beans. It is indeed very ill ſupplied with thoſe vegetable productions which form the riches of our kitchen gardens; and this, perhaps, is owing to the people being bad gardeners.

The Cochin-chineſe employ buffaloes only in cultivating their lands. Theſe animals are ſtronger than oxen, and ſupport themſelves better among the mud of the rice-fields. They have, however, a great many oxen; but they are ſmall, lean, and almoſt of no uſe. They have no ſheep, and their butchers' ſhops are very ill ſupplied with proviſions. To make up for this deficiency, they are rich in poultry: fowls, ducks, and pigeons are ſold cheap, and game may be procured for little or nothing. Theſe people never eat fiſh, though they have them excellent, and in great plenty; their rivers, as well as the ſea, abound with them.

With regard to the commerce of this country, it may be obſerved, that the Cochin-chineſe are neither rich, nor well acquainted with the nature of trade. As to foreign trade, they never carried on any, except with the Chineſe and the people of Japan; but the latter, about twenty-five years ago, gave up all intercourſe with them, by order of their ſovereign, who forbade his ſubjects to go out of the kingdom. The like prohibition was made in Cochin-china; and, on that account, the Cochin-chineſe are obliged to be contented with ſuch merchandize as the Chineſe bring to them. The inhabitants of Cochin-china, however, are far inferior to the Chineſe in acuteneſs; and the latter, therefore, find very little difficulty in over-reaching them. The articles brought them from China are generally tutanag; yellow, red, and white copper; tea, porcelain, embroidered ſilk ſtuffs, drugs and medicines of every kind; ſuch as rhubarb, birthwort, ginſeng, celandine, ſpiceries, and a great many roots, of which the Chineſe ſell large quantities. The Chineſe carry thither alſo abundance of paper, which is uſed for burying the dead; gilt and coloured paper for their pagodas and ſacrifices; and a little nankeen, together with paintings of all kinds, vermilion, azure, orpiment, and canvas, and cotton cloth. Sommes, a kind of Chineſe veſſels, go from Honang, loaded with all ſorts of earthen-ware and kitchen utenſils, for which they find a ready and profitable ſale. Thoſe ſommes which come from the eaſtern coaſt of China, or from Emoay, or Ning-po, bring ſometimes with them the merchandize of Japan, which they diſpoſe of to great advantage, and particularly copper and ſword-blades.

The ſommes which come from the coaſts of Camboja and Siam bring worked copper, drugs, cardamom, peltries, &c.

The articles of merchandiſe which the Chineſe import from Cochin-china, are gold, ivory, eagle-wood, ſugar-candy, arec, wood for cabinet-work, and for dying, pepper, muſk, a certain kind of ſalt-fiſh, birds neſts, and drugs, which the Cochin-chineſe procure from their mountains, ſuch as the horns of the rhinoceros, gambooge, &c. The Chineſe ſommes take in return gold, ſugar, and horſes: theſe animals are ſold at a cheap rate in Cochin-china. The manner in which the Chineſe carry on trade in Cochin-china is as follows: as ſoon as they arrive in ſight of the harbour, they find Cochin-chineſe pilots, who conduct

conduct them in. These pilots, who are of the rank of mandarins, have orders to be always in readiness to afford this assistance to strangers. When they have come to anchor, the captain, with some of his officers, goes on shore, and repairs to court with a general list of his goods, and such presents as are designed for the king. It may be proper here to observe, that business and contracts of every kind begin and terminate with presents; and it is of great importance to bring such as may be agreeable to the sovereign; because, if he is satisfied, he exempts the vessel from paying the duties of anchorage, which are considerable, and which are higher or lower according to the nature of the merchandise with which it is loaded. The Chinese pay ten per cent. agreeable to an ancient tarif, which determines the price of all commodities imported. On his return from court, the captain unloads his vessel, and transports his goods to a factory, which is visited by the mandarins who preside over the customs, in order to see whether they can meet with any thing curious, or that might be agreeable to the king, or the principal mandarins of the kingdom. These mandarins of the customs present a list of what they wish to buy; and if they find among the cargo any of the articles in their list, they separate them from the rest, and settle the price with the captain, who must be contented with a bill payable in two or three months. Before this visit, the captain can dispose of nothing: he must also be very exact, and make no omission in the list which he presents to the king on his arrival; for if the mandarins of the customs should find any thing not mentioned in the list, the consequences might be very disagreeable. He must, likewise, give some presents to the minister, and to the principal commissioner of the customs, who, in Cochin-china, is always a powerful mandarin, and styled Onkibotao. With regard to the sale of their merchandise, the Chinese apply to some of the mandarins, who readily become merchants when any thing is to be gained, and who purchase the dearest and most valuable articles. For objects of less importance, there are trusty women, well acquainted with commerce, who each take charge of a few lots, on receiving a small sum for their trouble. An European captain who might go this country, would easily find rich Christian merchants to assist him.

PROCEEDINGS *of the Third* SESSION *of the Seventeenth Parliament of* Great Britain, *concluded from Page* 134.

Mr. Jekyll said, that the right hon. gentleman had asked, Who the persons were who were clamorous for peace? To this he would answer, that they are those very persons, who, five months ago, were very solicitous for war, and who now, feeling its calamitous effects; and finding the only proper objects of it attained, are become no less desirous of obtaining peace. He was much astonished also, that the right hon. gentleman should say, that the objects of the war could not be defined at its commencement?—Were they not security and indemnity? Should the right hon. gentleman deny this, instead of moving for the reward of the invention of a time piece, he would have been himself the inventor of a perpetual motion; of which, as it was difficult to trace any just cause for its beginning, so it would be impossible to see any end of it. As to what had been insinuated by the right hon. gentleman, of disaffection in the desire of peace; if that be disaffective, he acknowledged himself to be a disaffected person; he gloried in such disaffection. The objects of the war were not only attainable, but had been attained; he meant, so far as this country is concerned. The sole objects of this country were security and indemnity; though very different were the views of all those with whom we have allied ourselves in carrying on the present war.

Mr. Burke said, he conceived the subject to involve a question which would decide for ever our connections with the continent; a question, whether we should make war with all the powers of Europe,

in order to make peace with France. They were called upon to ſend an addreſs to the throne, containing a bitter invective againſt three great powers of Europe; and what was to be the conſequence? Did we mean to provoke them without an object? If ſo, it was an idle invective, without meaning. He would not enter into the buſineſs of Poland, though he had certainly formed his own opinion upon it; but he muſt ſay, that it was a womaniſh proceeding at beſt, to rail, without doing more; and, if we do more, we are at war with all Europe. He muſt ſuppoſe, however, that the right hon. gentleman (Mr. Fox), whom he would ſuſpect of any thing rather than of weak deſigns, does really propoſe the making an attack in order to reſtore Poland. On this ſubject, whatever were his ſentiments, he would think it wiſe to hold his tongue; for, was it poſſible for Great Britain to go to war with Auſtria, Ruſſia, Pruſſia, with all the great powers of Europe, with no ally but France?—And what government was there in France with which we could form an alliance:—He remembered, when Charles XII. diſpoſed of that country (Poland) and gave it another king;—Did we, on that, or on a ſimilar occaſion, call upon France to aſſiſt us in reſcuing Poland?—No.—France, indeed, would have been ſufficiently deſirous of aſſiſting us, but Great-Britain and France could not then attempt it; the ſituation of Poland rendered any ſuch attempt impracticable; for, with reſpect to us, it may be conſidered as a country in the moon. But, what is the line of conduct, we are now deſired to follow, with reſpect to thoſe powers, with whom we have hitherto acted, in this war? Shall we begin to deſert them, in the firſt moment of our being called upon to attack? Shall we totally forget what they had done, and how they had fought for us in defence of Holland, in which we had ſo great an intereſt? The danger which then threatened Holland was formidable indeed, when attacked by M. Dumourier, no mean man. Of him and his 100,000 Sans Culottes, the Auſtrians had cleared Holland: and in doing ſo, had ſhed torrents of their blood. Shall we then now ſay, that we are tired of the war, at the very inſtant when we have got a glimpſe of hope, and before we have taken any one fortreſs. For his part, he reprobated ſuch ſhameful perfidy. But when we ſhall have excommunicated ourſelves from the whole band of European ſovereigns, in order to treat with France, we can have no ſecurity whatever for the performance of any treaty on their part, which can be equal even to the conſtancy or conſiſtency of a ſingle individual. He did not deny the ambition of the ſovereign powers of Europe; but the queſtion, in his opinion, came to be,—Which was that power, whoſe ambition was moſt likely to preſs on Great-Britain? The partition of Poland might poſſibly be made ſo as not to deſtroy, or even to affect in any great degree, the balance of power in Europe. The king of Pruſſia had, indeed, taken Dantzick, and he was ſorry for it; but had he taken the lives or the property of any individuals? He hoped it would not be conceived, that he approved of this; but he muſt conſider the different conduct of France, and oppoſe to it the deteſtable principles of their infamous decree of the 15th of December. He had not heard that, either in Poland or in Dantzick, any one clergyman had loſt his living, or that any man had loſt his life or property. The beginning of a war muſt always be the moſt expenſive part; and, yet, after having incurred all this enormous expence, we are now called upon, to put an end to the war, before it has been poſſible to derive any fruits from it.—On two former occaſions, the right hon. gentleman (Mr. Fox) had cenſured, in ſtrong terms, the conduct of the chancellor of the exchequer, in making armaments, without doing any thing more; and, ſhall we now deſire him to do ſo a third time?—The right hon. gentleman had ſaid, that if we wait till there ſhall be a ſettled government in France, we may wait for ever. But, in direct contradiction to this the right hon. gentleman himſelf has, all along, urged this propoſition, that monarchy cannot laſt long, while deſpotiſm generally reigns for a conſiderable length of time. With whom, indeed, could we treat at preſent? with M. Le Brun!—He is in priſon; him we have faſt; that is one advantage. Will he date from priſon, *the firſt Year of Liberty?* or, ſhall we treat with M. Egalité, who, the other day, promiſed himſelf to be lieutenant-general of the crown of France? or, with Roland? Roland is in priſon too, but Mrs. Roland was ſaid to act as miniſter, and ſhe too is in priſon. Could he give a recommendation to his friend Marat, he was afraid ſuch recommendation would not be attended to. In fact, there exiſted in France, at preſent, a ſtate of anarchy, with which it was impoſſible to treat. As to Briſſot, he, poor man, with all his moderation and virtue, was in jail too: and, what appeared to be his ſentiments, as to treaties, from

the report of the Diplomatic Committee, at the head of which he was? It is there ſtated, as a matter for examination, whether a free people can or ought to bind themſelves by treaties, &c. But, it is aſked, if we will continue war, till this ſtate of France is over. On this ſubject, one great ſophiſm appeared to him to run through the whole train of this argument as to the war, as if we had made war, when France had really made war upon us; and now, were we to relax in our endeavours, what ſecurity could we receive, that the war would not be again commenced. He muſt require for this, much better ſecurity than anarchy could give. The day that Dumourier entered Holland, France was equally diſorganiſed as ſhe is at preſent; yet, though deſtroyed, and uſeleſs as to any good purpoſe, ſtill her malignity was formidable. As to what has been inſiſted on ſo much, about impoſing a government on France, it is impoſſible that a government can be impoſed upon any country, unleſs the people have an aptitude to receive it. One of the illuſions, at preſent gone abroad is this, that we cannot juſtly interfere, in the internal government of a foreign country. The truth was, that in this reſpect, the juſt rule for the conduct of nations, was much the ſame as that which was applicable to private families. One family had certainly no right to interfere with the government of another family; but, if a perſon ſhould beat, abuſe, or endanger the lives of his wife, children, or ſervants, his neighbour would not only have a right to interfere, but might break forcibly into the houſe, and inſiſt upon putting matters under proper regulation, ſo as to prevent the like in future. In ſupport of this doctrine, as applicable to nations, Mr. Burke quoted a paſſage from Vatel, and inſiſted, that when a nation put itſelf into the ſituation ſtated by Vatel, as a *maleficent* nation, and endeavouring to force its ſyſtem into other countries, that was a cauſe of war—of all others, perhaps, the moſt juſt. This he maintained to be the ſituation of France, with reſpect to this country, and ſaid, that if neceſſary, he hoped he ſhould die in his poſt, in oppoſition to a ſyſtem ſuch as theirs. Was it honourable, he would aſk, to addreſs the king, to put an end to the war, before we had taken one place, or done any thing whatever? What new lights had we got to ſhew us, that the war was either unwiſe or unjuſt; or that we had made war at all, when it had been made upon us? Would it become us to ſend an ambaſſador to France? To proſtrate to regicides the crown of Great Britain?

The chancellor of the exchequer ſaid, there was, however, ſomething both in the motion itſelf, and of the mode of introducing it, which he could not ſuffer to paſs without notice. It was avowedly introduced for the purpoſe of recording the opinion of the right hon. gentleman, who made it at a time when diſcuſſions in parliament were ſuppoſed to be nearly at an end for the ſeſſion, and of going abroad to operate on the minds of the people during the receſs. On ſuch an occaſion, and on ſuch a ſubject, he ſhould be ſorry to leave his own opinion equivocal. The motion, in whatever point of view conſidered, was moſt impolitic and prepoſterous—impolitic, as the effect of it adopted would be to perſuade thoſe with whom we were to negotiate for peace, that we were unable to continue the war;—prepoſterous, as it went to renounce the objects for which we went to war, at the very time when we had incurred much of the expence, and had a well founded proſpect of obtaining them. To aſſert that a nation engaged in a war to reſiſt an unprovoked aggreſſion, ought to conclude a peace, whenever the enemy ſhould agree to deſiſt from that aggreſſion, but without obtaining reparation for the paſt, or ſecurity for the future, was contrary to all the principles by which even war, merely defenſive in the common acceptation of the word, was conducted It tended to abuſe and delude the people, by holding out to them the hope of peace, when peace could not be had on terms that were admiſſible; to increaſe diſſatisfaction where it exiſted before, and to create it where it did not. The terms of peace expected by the right hon. gentleman were, that France ſhould relinquiſh her conqueſts; which as yet, however, ſhe had ſhewn no inclination to do, while her diſorganizing and deſtructive ſyſtem of proſelytiſm and aggreſſion which had involved us in the war, remained in full force; and without any indemnification for what ſhe had already done, or ſecurity againſt what ſhe might in future attempt. Againſt peace on ſuch terms, he begged leave to enter his moſt ſolemn proteſt. He did not deny but that a country might be reduced to a ſituation that would make it prudent to ſolicit peace on theſe terms; but prudence would then be the reſult of neceſſity, that neceſſity would cover the ſhame of the degradation; but who would court of choice what neceſſity alone could inflict? What were the principles which among civilized nations were admitted to juſtify war? In the firſt place, every nation was juſtified in repelling the attack of an enemy.

But if a nation was unjuſtly attacked, muſt that nation make peace whenever the enemy thought proper to conſent, and without exacting any reparation? Was it thus the right hon. gentleman would direct the politics of any cabinet in which he might take the lead? Was it thus that the politics of the Britiſh nation had been directed in thoſe days to which he was ſo fond of alluding, as the light and example of future ſtateſmen? If ſuch were neither the general maxims of policy adopted by other countries, nor the particular rules which had guided our own, was a different ſet of principles to be adopted with reſpect to France? Were we in the moment of unexampled ſucceſs to promiſe that we would aſk no more than what the moſt aggravated ill ſucceſs might compel us to accept? The right hon. gentleman had formerly admitted that reparation was a juſt demand for an unjuſt aggreſſion. Now he held, that for the enemy to deſiſt from aggreſſion was ſufficient without any reparation whatever. Even if we had gone to war for a diſtinct and definite object, provided that object was a juſt one, we had a right to indemnity, for being obliged to go to war to obtain that which ought to have been conceded to us without it. But here an injury had been received; that injury followed by a declaration of war; and we were to look not only for indemnity but ſecurity.

What was the ſtate of this country before the commencement of the war? we contended that a treaty had been broken with an ally of ours; we contended that the French were purſuing a ſyſtem of aggrandizement, inconſiſtent with the peace and the liberties of Europe; and, more important than both that they were threatening in their own country, and plotting with diſaffected perſons in ours, the ſubverſion of the whole frame and conſtitution of our government. Theſe injuries the houſe of commons repreſented to his majeſty as of ſo dangerous a nature, that unleſs ſatisfaction were given, it muſt be compelled by war. In this too the right hon. gentleman agreed—what followed? the French, to fill up the climax of their inſults, declared war againſt us. If this were the repreſentation of the caſe, and this it was, every man who heard him perfectly recollected, then he contended that the objects of the war, beſide ſatisfaction for thoſe injuries, and repelling the unjuſt oppreſſion, were reparation for that aggreſſion, and ſecurity againſt its being renewed; both which objects were ſtill as entire as when the war began. That there might be caſes in which we muſt be content to relinquiſh part of what we might juſtly claim, no man who reflected on the mutability of human events, eſpecially the events of war, would pretend to diſpute; but theſe were caſes of misfortune and neceſſity; but neither juſtice nor prudence required us to do that of choice, which we might be obliged to yield to as a calamity. He did not maintain that we were to perſiſt in an impolitic war, merely becauſe we had right on our ſide; but in the preſent war, the policy and the right were the ſame; and on a view of the relative ſituations of the belligerent powers, he would aſk if we riſked more by proſecuting the war till we obtained that ulterior ſecurity for which he contended, or by concluding an uncertain peace without it? the houſe had declared to his majeſty that rather than abandon the objects in diſpute, they would ſupport a war. Why did they do ſo? was it becauſe they thought that war was no calamity? or was it not becauſe they thought it a calamity leſs to be dreaded than the ultimate evils, which abandoning thoſe objects muſt inevitably bring on all that was moſt dear to us? what had occurred to induce a change of opinion? had the war been more calamitous than was expected? had thoſe evils which were foreſeen been accumulated beyond the height at which they were calculated. He would not take them on the inflamed ſtatement of the right hon gentleman; but he would aſk thoſe who were diſpoſed to view them with leſs prejudice, and to eſtimate them with more candour, whether the evils inſeparable from war had come up to the predictions of ſome, or the fears of others; and whether the expectations of the moſt ſanguine had not been ſurpaſſed by the brilliant ſucceſſes of the campaign. Had any thing there happened to induce the houſe to tell his majeſty that they thought the ſyſtem changed? But it was ſaid, define what reparation you demand, ſtate what ſecurity you wiſh to obtain, theſe muſt depend on the time and the circumſtances in which we ſhould think proper to treat. He had formerly ſaid, that he did not conſider any form of government, which the French might attempt to eſtabliſh, as a cauſe of war. He ſaid ſo ſtill. But there was nothing in what he had ſaid, nothing in any communication from the throne, by which he ſhould feel himſelf precluded from adviſing his majeſty to interfere in the internal government of France if an opportunity ſhould occur of converting that interference

into

into a means of obtaining the legitimate object of the war. He now ſaid alſo, that if without any change in the internal government of France, he ſhould ſee a proſpect of concluding an honourable and advantageous peace, he would not decline it; but while the ſame principles that had lately diſtracted and almoſt ruined that country, prevailed, it was a queſtion of much difficulty, whether or not ſuch a proſpect could preſent itſelf. Yet, even if that ſhould fail, there were degrees of ſecurity, of which prudence, directed by a general view of the time and the circumſtances, muſt judge.

While thoſe principles remained in full force, which were the efficient cauſe of all the evils which Europe now ſuffered; while they continued to diffuſe the anarchy and miſery inherent in the pretended ſyſtem of the rights of man, he could only ſtate that there were three things to which he looked forward, as affording a proſpect of ſuch a peace as would ſatisfy him.—That thoſe principles ſhould ceaſe to exiſt in France; that, if they continued to exiſt, the French ſhould be convinced that they are unfit to be acted upon; or, that they ſhould be ſo reduced in point of power as to be diſabled from acting upon them to the diſquiet of the reſt of Europe. Without one or other of theſe events, any peace we might conclude with them would be only an armed and uncertain truce, without the hope of reſtoring that fortunate concurrence of circumſtances, which was near putting us in poſſeſſion of a ſober ſecurity.—If we thought that the period of negociation was arrived, ſuch a motion as was now made, would be unfit to be adopted, for it tended to diſcourage our allies, to miſlead our own ſubjects, and to open a correſpondence which deſerved not the name of a negociation. If it were aſked why he would not negociate with the preſent men in power; his anſwer was, that his objection was not merely to the men, not becauſe he would not negociate with Marat, but becauſe there was no ſtability in the government, or rather the anarchy of the day; becauſe he knew not on what to rely for the fulfilment to-morrow of the ſtipulation of to-day; becauſe he could have no ſecurity in the good faith of individuals, whoſe ſituations had no permanence; nor in the good faith of the nation, becauſe there was no power of controul to which the nation ſubmitted, or by which that faith might be pledged. This objection the right hon. gentleman himſelf had ſeen and ſtated, as he expected for the purpoſe of anſwering it; he had liſtened for the anſwer, but in vain. The convention which pretended to govern was over-ruled by the mob of Paris, the nation exhibited nothing but a moving picture of one violent party, driven out by another ſtill more violent. If we were ſhocked at one event, the next mail would teach us that we had been too eaſily moved, by the relation of another more ſhocking, as if what had been often ſaid of the decline of mankind from age to age, had been realized in France in one generation, every ſet of men, however deteſtable, was ſucceeded by another more deteſtable than themſelves. If he were to hear that Marat had been ſent to accompany his former friend Egalité in his dungeon at Marſeilles, he ſhould expect ſomething worſe than Marat to appear in his place.

Under theſe circumſtances, he ſaw not who could pledge the faith of France in any negociation. If the French were to give up their conqueſts, as the price of peace, what faith more ſolemn could they pledge, than was pledged by them to the guarantee of the excluſive navigation of the Scheld to the Dutch! what more ſolemn than they had pledged to their engagements to obtain the neutrality; and which they violated when they had enjoyed the advantages of that neutrality. Let us once put confidence in their profeſſions, and diſarm, and we might ſoon ſee them again at the gates of Holland. The tendency of the motion was therefore the ſecurity of our allies, and to ſacrifice the intereſts of the nation, and to loſe the opportunity which fortune had put in our power of providing for both. Would ſuch a motion, if adopted, be no ſignal of timidity on our part? would it not tend to diſſolve the confederacy which was now acting with ſucceſs againſt the common enemy? above all, would not the powers with whom we were acting in concert, think that we were unable to continue our exertions, when they heard the appeal to the diſtreſſes of the people, which the right hon. gentleman had preſſed ſo much in the concluſion of his ſpeech. He had watched the diſtreſſes of our commerce with the moſt laborious attention. He had ſeen and deplored them. But to conſider them as a cauſe of deſpondency in the ultimate ſucceſs of the war, was what neither their nature nor their extent would juſtify. The means ſucceſsfully applied to relieve them, proved that they were in great part imaginary and only temporary. The interruption of our trade was owing to the war that exiſted in Europe before we took

a part

a part in it; from which he inferred that the danger was leſs from the war, than from that deſtroying principle which had diſturbed all Europe, and threatened, as well as every thing elſe, our commerce, before we took arms to reſiſt it. Any meaſure then, that did not ſave Europe from this ſcourge, ſapped the foundation of our commercial proſperity and our ſafety as an independent nation.

Having thus given his reaſons for oppoſing the motion, he hardly knew how to anſwer the inſinuations thrown out reſpecting differences of opinion, between him and his colleagues in office. He hoped the right hon. gentleman would be more ſucceſsful in watching the ſentiments of other cabinets, than he had been on the preſent occaſion, in watching the ſentiments of miniſters at home. If, therefore, to oblige him, had been one of the right hon. gentleman's motives for making the motion, he hoped he would now add to the obligation by withdrawing it; for it was as foreign from any views entertained by him as any propoſition he had ever heard. If he were to divulge the opinions of thoſe with whom he acted, he knew not how he ſhould be able to ſtate a difference among them; but if any difference were ſuppoſed to exiſt, he deſired it to be conſidered as the moſt oppoſite to every principle of the right hon. gentleman's motion. He enlarged on the importance of the object for which he ſaid we were now contending, and the danger to be apprehended from the predominant principles in France—principles which, however baffled for a moment, unleſs totally ſubdued, we ſhould have to contend with to the lateſt hour of our lives.

Mr. Huſſey ſaid, that having ſeconded the motion, he begged leave to ſtate his reaſons. He admitted that it was difficult to make peace at preſent, but was that the thing moſt difficult? what was now become of all that ſurplus of revenue which the chancellor of the exchequer had formerly ſtated as ſufficient for the expences of the war, without new taxes? where were now the weekly accounts of increaſing revenue? was he ſure that he could carry on that war for one year more, without great additional taxes, or that he could make ſuch taxes productive? the manufacturers, it was ſaid, were not to be conſulted on war or peace; but let gentlemen recollect, that conſulted or not, the manufacturers muſt pay the bill; and let it alſo be conſidered, how far they were able to bear more than was already laid upon them. He ſupported the motion, as tending to prevent all thoſe evils from French principles, which the chancellor of the exchequer ſo much dreaded, and which, in his opinion, war only could produce.

The chancellor of the exchequer ſaid, he could not flatter himſelf that the war could be carried on another year without freſh taxes. The revenue for the laſt quarter was certainly leſs than for the correſponding quarter of the year preceding; but the difference was not greater than had occurred in years where there was no falling off on the whole. The ſtagnation of our trade was owing only to temporary cauſes, which were daily ceaſing to operate, and would be leſs and leſs every year, in proportion to the progreſs of our arms. He was ſanguine in his hopes of the produce of the revenue, becauſe, that in all former wars, while we had a ſuperiority at ſea, our trade had increaſed.

Mr. Wharton ſaid, that the chancellor of the exchequer, ſince 1784, had added two millions a year to the permanent taxes, which at the preſent price of the ſtocks would coſt 52 millions to redeem. If he had done this in time of peace, what might not be expected from him in war?

Mr. Fox inſiſted on the reality of the commercial diſtreſſes which the houſe had been inſulted by hearing called imaginary. The people of this country had a right to be informed, to what extent and to what object we were bound, by what was called gratitude to the emperor, that they might know for what they were ſuffering the calamities of war. The chancellor of the exchequer ſpoke to none of the points in queſtion with preciſion. He firſt ſaid, that he would treat without any change in the government of France; and then went on to prove that without a change, he could have nobody to treat with. He firſt ſaid, that he would not interfere directly in the internal government of France, in order to conciliate thoſe who diſapproved of ſuch interference; and then ſaid, that he would interfere if he ſaw occaſion, as a means of accompliſhing the object of the war, in order to conciliate thoſe who wiſhed that we ſhould interfere directly. To the imputation of favouring French principles, he would anſwer as he always had done—many of the principles he thought well founded, and lamented that they had all been ſo much abuſed; but no abuſe of them with reference to this country did he lament ſo much as to the complacence for principles directly oppoſite, which the abuſe of them by the French had been made the pretext for.

His motion, he was convinced, would meet

meet the approbation of the great majority of the thinking men in the kingdom; were it decent for him to say so, he might add the majority of the house. But this was not the reason why he brought it forward, but because he felt it to be well intended, and thought it might do good. He had brought forward propositions to the same effect when he knew that the great majority of the public was against him; and though he must always lament differing from those whose approbation he was zealous to obtain, his conduct should ever be guided by his conviction of what was right, not his judgment of what might be popular.

Mr. W. Smith said, he was persuaded that nothing would so effectually contribute to the speedy restoration of a general peace, as an opinion among the continental powers, that it was the earnest wish of Great Britain; and this the motion was calculated to promote.

After a few words from Mr. Drake and Sir William Dolben, the house divided on the motion, ayes, 47, noes, 187.

On Tuesday, June 18, the lord chancellor moved, that it be referred to the judges to report their opinion in the next session of parliament, upon the laws for the imprisonment for debt, and what part of those laws required amendment.

Lord Rawdon rose, not to oppose the motion, but shortly to observe upon the inexpediency and cruelty of imprisonment for debt, where the debtor was known to be wholly insolvent, and where no fraud was presumable.

Lord Stanhope, wishing the whole of the laws relative to debt, to be consolidated into one act, as all laws on any particular subject ought to be, moved, as an amendment to the motion, the following words; 'and to consolidate, in one act all the laws relative to debtor and creditor.'

The lord chancellor opposed the amendment, which, on the request of lord Rawdon, was withdrawn; and the original motion was put and carried.

On Friday, June 21, his majesty put an end to this session by a most gracious speech from the throne. *See Vol.* XCII, *page* 465.

LONDON GAZETTES.

From the London Gazette, Tuesday, September 10.

Whitehall, September 10.

THE following dispatch was this morning received from colonel sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highness the duke of York, at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Lefferinck's Hocke, Sept. 7, 1793.

Sir,

I have only time, before the departure of the messenger, to have the honour of informing you that field-marshal Freytag attacked a post of the enemy, at the village of Arnecke, upon the morning of the 5th.—A considerable number of men were killed, and five officers and upward of sixty men taken.

Upon the following day, the enemy made an attack upon the whole of the field-marshal's posts, as well from the town of Bergues as from the camp of Cassel. The troops behaved with the utmost bravery; and the enemy were repulsed at Warmouthe, Eckelbeck, and several other places; but by means of great superiority of numbers, they got possession of Bambecke, Rousbrugge and Poperinghe.

From the loss of these posts, the field-marshal found himself under the necessity of falling back in the night, upon Hondschoot, where he means to encamp this day. I shall have the honour of transmitting to you further particulars as soon as I become acquainted with them.

Upon the evening of the 6th, the enemy made a sally from Dunkirk. Their attack was chiefly directed against the right, where they kept up a heavy fire for some time; but the 14th regiment of infantry, commanded by major Ross (lieutenant-colonel Doyle being ill) and the Austrian regiments of Starray and Jordis being ordered up to support that part of the position, they were driven back into the town. The behaviour of the troops is worthy of every commendation.

I am sorry to add that the loss has been considerable, though that of the enemy was much greater. I enclose a return of that which the British troops have sustained; and that of the Austrians is about 150 men; the Hessians were very little engaged.

It is with infinite regret I must add, that colonel Moncrief has received a wound of

of the moſt dangerous kind. The loſs of an officer of ſpirit, activity, and genius like his, muſt ever be ſeverely felt; and it is particularly to be lamented at the preſent moment. I have the honour to be, with the greateſt reſpect, ſir, &c.

J. MURRAY.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

Return of the killed and wounded of the ſecond brigade of Britiſh infantry, September 6, 1793.

1 enſign, 1 ſerjeant, 1 corporal, 8 privates, killed; 1 captain, 1 lieutenant, 3 enſigns, 1 ſerjeant, 1 corporal, 1 drummer, 42 privates, wounded.

Names of Officers killed and wounded.

Enſign M'Donald, killed; captain Garnier, lieutenant M'Kenzie, enſigns Elrington, Smith, and Williams, wounded.

Volunteers Day and M'Grath, wounded.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, Thurſday, September 12.

Whitehall, Sept. 11. Mr. Richard Lawry, acting lieutenant of his majeſty's fireſhip the Comet, diſpatched by rear-admiral Macbride from Gravelines Pitts, arrived this afternoon at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department; with a diſpatch from colonel ſir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highneſs the duke of York, of which the following is a copy.

Sir, Furnes, Sept. 9.

It is with extreme ſorrow that I have to acquaint you with the unfortunate event of an attack which the French army made upon that of field-marſhal Freytag upon the 8th inſtant. The latter was poſted, as I have had the honour of informing you, at Houdſchoote, the right upon the canal, the left extending toward Leyrel.

The enemy had made an attack the preceding evening, in which they had been repulſed; but upon that day attacking upon every point, notwithſtanding the greateſt exertions of bravery in the troops, and of ability in general Walmoden, who then commanded them, they ſucceeded in forcing the center of his line. He retired behind the ſmall canal which runs from Buſſam to Steenkirk.

The loſs has been very ſevere. His royal highneſs has not as yet received any return, nor have any further particulars been tranſmitted. Many gallant officers have fallen. The whole loſs in the different actions is ſuppoſed to be near 1500 in killed and wounded, and miſſing; that of the enemy has been unqueſtionably greater. Three pieces of cannon and between two and three hundred priſoners have been taken. I underſtand that the Hanoverians have loſt the ſame number of cannon.

Upon the 7th, his royal highneſs ſent two battalions of Heſſians to general Walmoden's ſupport; but finding that aid to be ineffectual, he was reduced to the neceſſity of collecting his whole force, by abandoning the poſition he had taken near Dunkirk. Thirty-two of the heavy guns, and part of the ſtores provided for the ſiege, were left behind, there being no means of carrying them off. The army marched laſt night, and encamped this morning near Adinkerque.

It appears that the enemy had collected force for this enterprize from every quarter of the country, from the armies of the Rhine and the Moſelle, and particularly that which occupied the Camp de Cæſar. They were commanded by general Houchard, who is ſaid by the priſoners (though with what degree of truth cannot be aſcertained) to have been mortally wounded at Rexpoede.

In the retreat upon the night of the 8th, his royal highneſs prince Adolphus and the field-marſhal were, for a ſhort time, in the poſſeſſion of the enemy. A patrole of cavalry, which ought to have been in their front, having taken another road, they went into the village of Rexpoede, through which one of the columns was to paſs, but which was then occupied by the enemy. His royal highneſs was ſlightly wounded with a ſword upon the head and arm; but I have the ſatisfaction to ſay, that no bad conſequences are to be apprehended. The field marſhal was wounded in the head, and, I am happy to add, only in the ſame degree. He has, however, been unable, ſince that time, to take the command of the army. Captain Ouſlar, one of his royal highneſs' aides-de-camp, was killed; and another, captain Wargenheim, very ſeverely wounded.

From this ſituation, his royal highneſs and the field-marſhal were relieved by the intrepidity and preſence of mind of general Walmoden, who, upon diſcovering the enemy were in poſſeſſion of Rexpoede, had immediately collected a body of troops, attacked

attacked it without hesitation, and defeated them with great slaughter.

I must repeat that nothing could exceed the steadiness and good behaviour of the troops in these repeated engagements. Lieutenant-general sir William Erskine commanded the rear-guard, and much is due to his conduct and military skill.

The enemy made a sortie on the night, and another on the evening of the 8th; in both of which they were repulsed without loss on our side. I have the honour to be, with the greatest respect, sir, your most obedient humble servant,

J. MURRAY, adjutant-general.

P. S. The cavalry, from the nature of the country, have been very little engaged.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, Friday, September 13.

Whitehall, Sept. 13. The following dispatch from colonel sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highness the duke of York, was this evening received express at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department

Furnes, Sept. 10, 1793.

Sir,

I have the honour to inform you, that in consequence of information received this morning from Ypres, stating that important place was attacked, and that it stood in need of immediate assistance, his royal highness determined to go to its relief. The troops were already marched, when intelligence was received of the enemy having fallen back to Bailleul. This retreat seems to have been occasioned by a successful attack, which was made upon the 8th, by general Beaulieu, upon their posts near Lisle.

In consequence of this, the troops have returned to their former camp. I have the honour to be, with the greatest respect, sir, your most obedient humble servant,

J. MURRAY.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, Saturday, September 14.

Whitehall, Sept. 13. By advices from vice-admiral lord Hood, commander in chief of his majesty's ships and vessels employed in the Mediterranean, received this evening, dated Victory, off the Islands of Hières, the 25th of August 1793, it appears that an intercourse had taken place between his lordship and commissioners from Toulon and Marseilles; that lord Hood had published a preliminary declaration and proclamation, and received a paper in answer, of which copies are subjoined. And by subsequent accounts from captain Nelson, commander of his majesty's ship Agamemnon, dated August 31, off Oneglia, to Mr. Trevor, his majesty's minister at the court of Turin, it appears that a treaty relative to Toulon was brought to a conclusion; and that on the 28th, lord Hood's fleet landed 1500 men, and took possession of the batteries at the mouth of the harbour.

The French fleet hauled into the inner road, and on the 29th the British fleet, and the fleet of Spain, which joined on the same day, anchored in the outer road of Toulon. It is added, that Marseilles has been taken by the republican troops, under general Carteau.

PRELIMINARY DECLARATION.

If a candid and explicit declaration in favour of monarchy is made at Toulon and Marseilles, and the standard of royalty hoisted, the ships in the harbour dismantled, and the port and forts provisionally at my disposition, so as to allow of the egress and regress with safety, the people of Provence shall have all the assistance and support his Britannic majesty's fleet under my command can give; and not an atom of private property of any individual shall be touched, but protected; having no other view than that of restoring peace to a great nation upon just, liberal and honourable terms: this must be the ground-work of the treaty.

And whenever peace takes place, which I hope and trust will be soon, the port, with all the ships in the harbour, and forts of Toulon, shall be restored to France, with the stores of every kind, agreeable to the schedule that may be delivered.

Given on board his Britannic majesty's ship Victory, off Toulon, this 23d of August 1793.

(Signed) HOOD.

PROCLAMATION,

By the Right Hon. Samuel Lord Hood, Vice Admiral of the Red, and Commander in Chief of his Britannic Majesty's Squadron in the Mediterranean, &c. &c.

To the Inhabitants in the Towns and Provinces in the South of France.

During four years you have been involved in a revolution, which has plunged you in anarchy, and rendered you a prey to factious leaders. After having destroyed your government, trampled under foot the laws, assassinated the virtuous, and authorized the commission of crimes, they have endeavoured to propagate throughout Europe their destructive system of every social order. They have constantly held forth to you the idea of liberty, while they have been robbing you of it. Every where they have preached respect to persons and property, and every where in their name it has been violated; they have amused you with the sovereignty of the people, which they have constantly usurped; they have declaimed against the abuses of royalty, in order to establish their tyranny upon the fragments of a throne still reeking with the blood of your legitimate sovereign. Frenchmen! you groan under the pressure of want, and the privation of all specie; your commerce and your industry are annihilated, your agriculture is checked, and the want of provisions threatens you with a horrible famine. Behold, then, the faithful picture of your wretched condition; a situation so dreadful sensibly afflicts the coalesced powers; they see no other remedy but the re-establishment of the French monarchy. It is for this, and the acts of aggression committed by the executive power of France, that we have armed in conjunction with the other coalesced powers. After mature reflection upon these leading objects, I come to offer you the force with which I am entrusted by my sovereign, in order to spare the further effusion of human blood, to crush with promptitude the factious, to re-establish a regular government in France, and thereby maintain peace and tranquillity in Europe.

Decide, therefore, definitively, and with precision. Trust your hopes to the generosity of a *loyal* and *free* nation. In its name I have just given an unequivocal testimony to the well-disposed inhabitants of Marseilles, by granting to the commissioners sent on board the fleet under my command a passport for procuring a quantity of grain, of which this great town now stands so much in need. Be explicit, and I fly to your succour, in order to break the chain which surrounds you, and to be the instrument of making many years of happiness succeed to four years of misery and anarchy, in which your deluded country has been involved.

Given on board his Britannic majesty's ship Victory, off Toulon, the 23d day of August 1793.

(Signed) HOOD.

By command of the admiral,
(Signed) J. M'ARTHUR.

DECLARATION made to Admiral Lord HOOD.

The general committee of the sections of Toulon, having read the proclamation of admiral lord Hood, commander in chief of his Britannic majesty's squadron, together with the preliminary declaration; and, after having communicated these two papers to all the citizens of the town of Toulon, united in sections,

Considering that France is torn by anarchy, and that it is impossible to exist longer a prey to the factious, with which the country is agitated, without its total destruction;

Considering that the southern departments, after having made long efforts to resist the oppression of a party of factious men, who have conspired to ruin them, find themselves drained and deprived of all resources to annihilate this coalition of the evil disposed;

Considering, in short, that determined not to submit to the tyranny of a convention that has sworn to ruin the nation, the people of Toulon, and those of Marseilles, would rather have recourse to the generosity of a loyal people, who have manifested the desire of protecting the true Frenchmen against the anarchists who wish to ruin them,

DECLARE to Admiral HOOD,

I. That the unanimous wish of the inhabitants of Toulon is to reject a constitution which does not promote their happiness, to adopt a monarchic government, such as it was originally by the constituent assembly of 1789; and in consequence, they have proclaimed Louis XVII, son of Louis XVI, King, and have sworn to acknowledge him, and no longer suffer the despotism of the tyrants which at this time govern France.

II. That

II. That the white flag shall be hoisted the instant the English squadron anchors in the road of Toulon, and it will there meet the most friendly reception.

III. That the ships of war now in the road will be disarmed according to admiral Hood's wishes.

IV. That the citadel and the forts of the coast shall be provisionally at the disposal of the said admiral; but, for the better establishing the union which ought to exist between the two people, it is requested that the garrison shall be composed of an equal number of French and English, and that nevertheless the command shall devolve to the English.

V. The people of Toulon trust the English nation will furnish speedily a force sufficient to assist in repelling the attacks with which they are at this moment threatened by the army of Italy, which marches toward Toulon, and by that of general Carteau, who directs his forces against Marseilles.

VI. That the people of Toulon, full of confidence in the generous offers of admiral Hood, trust that all those who held civil and military employments shall be continued in their places, and shall not be annoyed in their respective occupations.

VII. That subsistence and succours of every kind, of which Toulon stands in need, will be assured to the inhabitants by the combined fleet of the powers coalesced.

VIII. That when peace shall have been re-established in France, the ships and forts which shall be put into the hands of the English shall be restored to the French nation, in the same state they were in when the inventory was delivered.

It is according to this declaration, if approved by admiral Hood, that the Toulonese will regard themselves, with good heart and will, as belonging to the English and the other powers coalesced, and by whose succour will be brought about that peace after which they have panted so long.

(Signed)

Beaudeal, president. Reboul, vice-president. Reynaud, secretary. La Poype Vertrieux. Deydier Cadet. Andraw. Vitalis. Barthelemy, commissary of the department. Possel. Fournier. Grival. B. Devant. Antoine Gabert. Porret. Joffre, commissary of the municipality. L. Garibow. Boullement. Ferrand. Chaussegros, commandant of arms. Burgues. Richaud, commissary of the municipality. Meifrund, president of the municipality. Bertrand. Sicard.

From the London Gazette, Saturday, September 14.

Whitehall, September 14.

Extract of a letter from the Earl of Elgin, his majesty's Envoy-extraordinary at the Court of Brussels, to the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, his Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, dated Bermerain, Sept. 12, 1793.

My Lord,

I have the satisfaction of informing your lordship, that this morning, La Quesnoy has surrendered to the troops of his Imperial majesty. At midnight the town ceased firing, and an officer came out with the terms on which the garrison proposed to capitulate. These terms were rejected, in so far as they deviated from the point, which general Clairfayt had resolved to insist upon, namely, that the garrison should be prisoners of war. This condition, though combated, did not appear unexpected; and the officer, on quitting general Clairfayt, gave assurances, that the stipulations he had consented to would be accepted.

At the moment of dispatching my messenger, the capitulation is not actually signed: but as prince Cobourg, general Clairfayt, and count Mercy, have severally confirmed to me the surrender, and authorized me to communicate it to your lordship, I hope my doing so will not appear hasty.

The garrison is to march out on the 13th instant.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, Monday, September 16.

Admiralty-office, Sept. 15, 1793.

Lord Hugh Conway, captain of his majesty's ship the Leviathan, arrived here this day, with a dispatch from lord Hood, commander in chief of his majesty's ships and vessels in the Mediterranean, to Philip Stephens, esq. of which the following is a copy:

Victory, in the Outer Road of Toulon, Aug. 29, 1793.

Sir,

In my letter of the 25th, (of which I herewith send a duplicate, and also of its inclosures) I had the honour to acquaint you, for the information of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, of the situation of things at Toulon and Marseilles: since that several messages have passed be-

twixt me and the ſections of Toulon; and, having aſſurances that they had proclaimed Louis XVII king, and had ſworn to acknowledge him, and no longer ſuffer the deſpotiſm of the tyrants which at this time govern France, and that they would be zealous in their endeavours to reſtore peace to their diſtracted and calamitous country, I came to the reſolution of landing 1500 men, and take poſſeſſion of the forts which command the ſhips in the road. St. Julien, a turbulent hot-headed democrat, (to whom the ſeamen had given the command of the fleet, in the room of Trogoffe) had the command of the forts on the left of the harbour, and declared reſiſtance.

In all enterprizes of war, danger, more or leſs, is to be expected, and muſt be ſubmitted to: but, impreſſed with the great importance of taking poſſeſſion of Toulon, the great fort of Malgue, and others on the main, in ſhortening the war, I fully relied, that, in caſe my endeavours ſhould not ſucceed, I ſhould be juſtified in running ſome riſque, being conſcious I acted, to the beſt of my judgment, as a faithful ſervant to my king and country; therefore at midnight on the 27th, I made the neceſſary arrangements for putting the troops on ſhore, as near as poſſible to the great fort, without their being moleſted by thoſe batteries in the hands of St. Julien, under the immediate protection of the Molenger and Tartar, ſupported by the Egmont, Robuſt, Courageux, and Coloſſus, which were all in the fort by noon on the 28th. And I authorized captain Elphinſtone to land and enter, at the head of the troops, the fort of Malgue, and to take upon him the charge and command as governor; and directed captain Dickſon, on his anchoring, to ſend a flag, with peremptory notice to St. Julien, that ſuch ſhips as did not immediately proceed into the inner harbour, and put their powder on ſhore, ſhould be treated as enemies. All but ſeven, whoſe crews ran off with St. Julien, removed in the courſe of the day.

It is impoſſible for me to expreſs my obligation to don Langara, adequate to my feelings of it, for the ſingular honour of his implicit confidence in, and good opinion of me, in the promptitude his excellency manifeſted to comply with the wiſhes contained in my ſecond letter; as his excellency was not content with ſending admiral Gravina, but came with his whole ſquadron, except four, which he left to bring a body of troops from the army at Roſellon, and made his appearance from the deck of the Victory as the troops from his majeſty's ſquadron under my command were in the act of landing. Admiral Gravina came on board; and upon my explaining to him the neceſſity of as many Spaniſh troops being put on ſhore immediately as could be ſpared, he told me he was authorized by his admiral to pay attention to any requeſt I ſhould make, and undertook to prepare 1000 at leaſt, to be landed this morning, under the protection of the four ſhips I had ordered to anchor, and were all in the fort before twelve o'clock.

I herewith tranſmit a copy of don Langara's letter, in anſwer to mine of the 25th.

The corps of Cartau has been at Marſeilles, and committed all manner of enormities, and is now on its march to Toulon, expecting to join the army near at hand from Italy. The former conſiſts of 10,000 men; the number of the latter is not aſcertained, but be it more or leſs, I truſt the whole will make no impreſſion even upon the town of Toulon; upon the fort of Malgue, I am pretty confident they cannot do it.

Information has juſt been ſent me that Cartau has planned to ſend away from Marſeilles all the money, as well as merchandiſe, in the town: the former is ſaid to conſiſt of four millions of livres; but I have planned to prevent him, by having ſent off Marſeilles two ſhips of the line, with orders not to ſuffer any veſſel to ſail; and I am now ſending two frigates, which I could not ſpare before.

After having taken poſſeſſion of Toulon and the forts, I judged it expedient to iſſue another proclamation, which captain Elphinſtone tells me has had a very happy effect; a copy of which I alſo incloſe.

The knowledge of this event to the king and his majeſty's miniſters, appears to me of that magnitude, that I think it expedient to adopt two modes of conveyance, one by the way of Barcelona, and the other of Genoa.

Lord Hugh Conway has the charge of one diſpatch, and the honourable captain Waldegrave the other, who will be able to inform his majeſty's miniſters, at thoſe places they may paſs, of the allied powers. I have the honour to be, ſir, your moſt obedient humble ſervant,

(Signed) HOOD.

Philip Stephens, eſq.

PROCLAMATION.

By the Right Hon. Samuel Lord Hood, Vice Admiral of the Red, and commander in chief of his Britannic majesty's squadron in the Mediterranean, &c. &c.

Whereas the sections of Toulon have, by their commissioners to me, made a solemn declaration in favour of monarchy, have proclaimed Louis XVII, son of the late Louis XVI, their lawful king, and have sworn to acknowledge him, and no longer suffer the despotism of the tyrants, which at this time govern France, but will do their utmost to establish monarchy, as accepted by their late sovereign, in 1789, and restore peace to their distracted and calamitous country;

I do hereby repeat, what I have already declared to the people of the south of France, that I take possession of Toulon, and hold it in trust only for Louis XVII, until peace shall be re-established in France, which I hope and trust will be soon.

Given on board his Britannic majesty's ship Victory, off Toulon, the 28th of August 1793.

(Signed) HOOD.

By command of the admiral,
(Signed) J. M'Arthur, secretary.

Most excellent Lord,

I have received your excellency's much-esteemed letter, with the intelligence therein mentioned, and inclosing a copy of your proclamation. In consequence, I cannot resist taking the greatest interest in the common cause; and, considering the effects that might result from my not taking advantage of so favourable an opportunity, I have determined to proceed immediately, in view of your squadron; and, at the same time, I dispatched an express to the commander in chief of the army in Rosellon, desiring that he would embark in four ships, which I left for that purpose, two or three thousand of the best troops, to be employed as your excellency wishes in the operations you have pointed out.

May God preserve you a thousand years.

Most excellent lord, I kiss your lordship's hands, your most obedient, and faithful humble servant,

(Signed)

JUAN de LANGARA and HUARTE.

On board of the Mexicano,
off the coast of Rosellon,
the 26th of Aug. 1793.

Admiral Lord HOOD.

Whitehall, Sept. 16. Captain Robinson, of the Brilliant frigate, arrived yesterday evening, at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department, with the following dispatch from colonel sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highness the duke of York.

Dixmuyde, Sept. 14, 1793.

Sir,

I take the opportunity of captain Robinson of the Brilliant frigate, going to England, to inform you, that the Dutch posts upon the Lys were forced by the enemy upon the 12th. In consequence of this the troops of the republic have abandoned Menin, and have fallen back upon Bruges and Ghent. His royal highness means to march this day to Thourout.

Accounts were received this morning that an engagement had taken place at Villiers en Couchée, near Quesnoy, in which the French were defeated, with the loss of 3000 men and eleven pieces of cannon. I have the honour to be, &c.

J. MURRAY.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

From the London Gazette, Saturday, September 21.

Whitehall, Sept. 21. This morning one of his majesty's messengers arrived at the office of the right hon. lord Grenville, his majesty's principal secretary of state for foreign affairs, with dispatches from the earl of Elgin, his majesty's envoy extraordinary to the court of Brussels, of which the following is an extract.

St. Amand, Sept. 16, 1793.

I have the honour of inclosing to your lordship the report of the recapture of Menin, as sent in by general Beaulieu to prince Cobourg.

Sept. 15.

This morning the French, to the number of twelve or fourteen thousand men, advanced from Wevelghem to Bisseghem, where they attacked the advanced posts on the left of general Beaulieu's army. The attack was brisk, and would have completely succeeded on the side of the French, if general Beaulieu had not sent speedy and successive reinforcements to the post of Bisseghem. The French had then recourse to their numerous artillery, in order to dislodge the Austrians from their position behind Landerberg; and

and they would have been ſucceſsful there, if they had not ſuddenly found their left turned by a body of Auſtrian infantry, headed by captain Mulchahn, of the regiment of Beaulieu, who aſſailed them with cannon on the left flank, and alſo in the rear. This movement of the Auſtrians on the left flank of the French, had ſuch an effect upon the latter, that they began to give way. General Beaulieu then availing himſelf of this circumſtance, charged them in front, and put them totally to flight. They retreated toward Menin, General Beaulieu having collected his cavalry, which had routed the French, waited for reports from his right, in order to be aſſured, that he might purſue the enemy without interruption. The reports arrived about one o'clock P. M. In conſequence, general Beaulieu, without a moment's heſitation, marched toward Menin; the rather, as he had learnt that general Ehrbach, with four battalions and eight ſquadrons, was on his march from Rouſſaer. In the purſuit, general Beaulieu's advanced guard had ſeveral ſkirmiſhes, in which it had conſtantly the advantage, repulſing the enemy, quite to the gates of Menin. At four in the afternoon, general Beaulieu arrived with his whole corps under the walls of that town, and attacked the French with cannon; at the ſame time he aſſaulted the ramparts near the gate of Rouſſaer, when the French, without any further reſiſtance, totally abandoned the place, and paſſed the Lys with precipitation, leaving at the bridge only a weak rear-guard, which was entirely killed or taken by the Auſtrian troops, who entered at the gate of Courtray.—In the interval general Ehrbach arrived with his corps, and immediately paſſed the Lys. Two Engliſh ſquadrons joined the Auſtrian huſſars in the purſuit of the French, who retreated toward Roncq. In this action, we loſt about 100 men, killed or wounded. The loſs of the French is between four and five hundred men. We are not able at preſent to compute the number of priſoners. At the departure of the meſſenger, who brought this agreeable intelligence, about 150 were arrived in the ſquare of Menin, together with two pieces of cannon, and eighteen ammunition waggons.

Whitehall, Sept. 21. The following diſpatch from colonel ſir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highneſs the duke of York, was this afternoon received at the office of the right honourable Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

Menin, September 15, 1793.

Sir,

I had the honour of informing you, that upon the retreat of the Dutch troops from Menin, his royal highneſs intended to march upon Thourout, in order to oppoſe the further progreſs of the enemy, and to act in conjunction with general Beaulieu, who commanded a corps of Auſtrians near Courtray.

This march was executed upon the 14th. Lieutenant-general Ehrbach, with two battalions of Auſtrians and two of Heſſian infantry, and four ſquadrons of Britiſh cavalry, under the command of major-general Harcourt, was ordered to advance the ſame day to Rouſſelaire. Upon the 15th, the main body of the army advanced to Rouſſelaire, and lieut.-general Ehrbach's corps to Ledeghem, it being his royal highneſs's intention to attack the enemy, and force them to repaſs the Lys. Information was received at Rouſſelaire of the prince of Cobourg's being in march toward Liſle with a large body of troops, which his ſerene highneſs had put in motion, as ſoon as he had learnt that Menin was evacuated.

During the march of the army, the enemy had attacked general Beaulieu's advanced poſts; eight battalions were ſent to his ſupport; but the enemy had been repulſed before their arrival.

This appears to have been only intended to cover their retreat, as they had begun to evacuate Menin early in the morning. In the courſe of the day, they entirely abandoned that important poſt, which was taken poſſeſſion of in the evening by lieutenant-general Ehrbach. Yeſterday the army marched again: a camp was taken near Menin, and the advanced poſts puſhed on to Werwick, which the enemy had likewiſe abandoned, ſo that by theſe movements Auſtrian Flanders has been protected, and this part of it recovered. I have the honour, &c.

J. MURRAY.

Admiralty-office, Sept. 21. A letter hath this day been received from vice admiral lord Hood, commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Mediterranean, to Mr. Stephens, dated on board the Victory, in the outer road of Toulon, the 18th inſtant, of which the following is an extract:

Yeſterday afternoon a part of Carteaux's army, conſiſting of 750 men, approached near Toulon. Captain Elphinſtone, whom I had appointed governor of the great fort of Malgue and its dependencies, marched out, at the head of 600 troops, and put it

to

to the rout, took four pieces of cannon, their ammunition, &c.

Herewith I have the honour to send you governor Elphinstone's letter; and most exceedingly lament the loss of a very excellent officer, major Douglas, whom I had appointed fort-major, and whose zeal in going out with the troops, could not be restrained. The ball entered his breast, and was extracted at the shoulder blade. He died last night.

Upon the troops leaving the fort, the appointed signal was made for a number of seamen that were kept ready, and 400 were on shore immediately, to put the fort out of danger.

Rear-admiral Goodall has taken upon him the charge and command of governor of Toulon, and rear-admiral Gravina that of commandant of the troops.

The signal is, this moment, for the convoy's being in sight, with a considerable body of Spanish troops, from the army in Roussillon.

Toulon, August 31. 1793.

My Lord,

In consequence of the information I had the honour to send to your lordship yesterday forenoon, and the repeated application which I had received from the committee of war and safety, I thought proper to send out a patrole towards Ollouilles, to reconnoitre the enemy and to examine their force; at the same time I ordered 380 British, and the same number of Spanish troops, to be under arms, and I directed the committee of war to furnish a proportion of their best troops, and six pieces of cannon, with ammunition and waggons, to be in readiness. About three o'clock, the patrole returned with some peasants, who had been wounded by the enemy's dragoons, who informed me, that certain troops of Carteaux were posted at Sentry and l'Ollouilles, about five miles from hence, to the amount of 600 men, with ten pieces of cannon, and a few cavalry: I instantly marched out with the British and Spanish troops, taking the road to Ollouilles, having four guides along with me, (belonging to that place) and having left directions, that the French troops, with the cannon, &c. should instantly follow. On the road, I met wounded peasants, who informed me, that their whole force was now posted at Ollouilles. When we approached within half a mile of that place, I observed a party of the enemy endeavouring to gain an eminence on our right. I detached captain Haddon and Wemys, of the 11th regiment of foot, to prevent this, and to advance with their parties, keeping possession of the high grounds, and sent lieutenant Knight, with a party of the same regiment, on the like service, to the left, both of which duties were admirably executed. I then advanced with the aid-de-camp to reconnoitre the enemy's situation, and found they were posted in the village of Ollouilles, upon the side of a steep hill, a deep ravine in their front, with a stone bridge over it, defended with two pieces of cannon, and the windows filled with musquetry; about 200 yards further up the hill, at a ruinous castle, there were two more pieces of cannon, and the walls of the vineyards lined with musquetry. It was now half past six in the evening, without any appearance of the French troops or the cannon from Toulon; it became therefore necessary, either to attack immediately or to retire: I preferred the former, and ordered the flanking party to keep up an incessant firing upon the cannon at the bridge; I then ordered the column, under cover of a stone wall, cautiously to advance within two hundred yards, and then, being open to the fire of the enemy, to rush forward, which was executed under a very severe fire; when the enemy instantly abandoned their posts, on all quarters, leaving us in possession of their cannon, horses, and ammunition, two stand of colours, drums, &c. They were pursued up a very steep hill to the further end of the village. It was now become nearly dark, and the ammunition was expended, which induced me to order the troops to occupy the eminence, as we were in an unknown country, and abandoned by the guides, who fled upon the first fire. After halting for an hour, I led the troops back to Toulon, with the prisoners and cannon taken from the enemy, and on the road we met the French troops and the cannon, which ought to have left Toulon with us, but which unfortunately had been delayed. From the information that we received in the village, and from the prisoners, we found that we had beaten the *élite* of Carteaux's army, consisting of between seven and eight hundred men and some cavalry, which had been sent from Marseilles, for the purpose of overawing Toulon, and that they expected to have been joined the next day by 400 men, and eight pieces of cannon. In this little affair, it becomes my duty to inform your lordship, that the conduct of the troops, those of his majesty as well as those of the king of Spain, was highly meritorious. Captain Montrief, of

the

the 11th, commandant of the Britiſh troops, headed the column with a degree of intrepidity worthy of imitation; and don Monteiro, commandant of the Spaniſh troops, conducted himſelf with equal valour. But the credit of the day was chiefly derived from the great exertion and gallant behaviour of captain Douglas, town-major of Toulon; and it is with grief I add, that he was mortally wounded, and is ſince dead: in my mind, the king's ſervice has ſuſtained a great loſs. The conduct of enſign Forſter, of the 30th regiment, my aid-de-camp, was ſuch as to give me the fulleſt ſatisfaction, and hope will render him an object of attention.

I have the honour to be, my lord,
Your lordſhip's moſt obedient humble ſervant,
G. K. ELPHINSTONE.

Right hon. lord Hood, vice admiral of the red, &c. &c. &c.

BRITISH.

Captain Douglas, of the 11th regiment, killed.

11th regiment. 1 ſerjeant, 6 privates, wounded.

25th regiment. 3 privates wounded.

SPANIARDS.

3 killed. 3 wounded.

From the London Gazette, Tueſday, September 24.

Whitehall, September 24.

Extract of a letter from the Earl of Yarmouth, to the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, his Majeſty's Principal Secretary of State for the Department of Foreign Affairs. Dated Maikammer, Sept. 15, 1793.

An aid-de-camp of the duke of Brunſwick is juſt arrived, with an account that the duke of Brunſwick was yeſterday attacked by the French near Pirmazens, but that, by a very judicious manœuvre, he turned their flank ſo completely as to ſurround them, when they threw down their arms and ſurrendered themſelves priſoners of war, to the amount of 3000. He took twenty-ſeven pieces of cannon, and two howitzers. The number of the dead cannot be aſcertained, as the duke was left in the purſuit. He alſo was ſo fortunate, in the courſe of the operations, as to burn the baggage and tents of another body of French, encamped near Birche. While the duke was ſo well employed on one ſide, General Kalkreuth was attacked in another quarter, but very faintly; and the action concluded by his cutting to pieces the regiment emphatically called les Sans Culottes, and taking ſixty-ſeven men of another corps.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

The FRIEND: A Sonnet.

THE penſile lamps that gild the ev'ning ſky,
Wide o'er the blue expanſe in ſilence glide,
While her broad orb refulgent plac'd on high,
Behold the ſilver moon majeſtic ride;
In thick profuſion as they ſparkling roll,
The ſtars to her ſuperior luſtre yield,
Though widely ſpread from either adverſe pole,
Uncounted myriads deck the azure field.
As o'er inferior fires the moon's pale light,
Thro' night's dark ſhade a brighter radiance ſends;
So much the friend approv'd in danger's fight,
The world and fortune's minions far tranſcends;
His gen'rous ſoul diſdains each ſelfiſh aim,
Joy or diſtreſs ſtill finds his love the ſame.

The CONTRAST, PERFIDY: A Sonnet.

AS ſome fleet hind by hungry jackals preſt,
In wild deſpondence ſeeks the mountain's ſide,
Faint and fatigu'd with boding fears oppreſt,
Strives in ſome cavern's dark recеſs to hide;
There the grim lion lurking waits the night;
(The ſilent hour when to the woods he hies)
Poor hapleſs thing!—ſhe runs with blind affright,
Unſeeming enters,—weeps her fate,—and dies.
So he who pierc'd by angry fortune's dart,
And flying ſeeks to ſhun his vengeful foes,
Truſts to an artful villain's faithleſs heart,
For promis'd ſafety and ſecure repoſe,
At laſt perceives (then 'tis too late to know)
The fraud perfidious, when he feels the blow.

EUSEBIUS.

To a WITHERED ROSE.

AH, once fair flow'r, thy roſeate bloom is fled!
Wither'd thy leaves, and languid droops thy head!
Late o'er the gay parterre thy beauties ſhone
'Mid a fair group, unequal'd and alone;
Surrounding rivals all with envy fir'd;
By all the tribes of buzzing beaux admir'd;
By fanning zephyrs gentle airs careſt,
That idly loit'ring on thy fragrant breaſt,
Steal balmy odours grateful to the ſenſe,
And wide around th' ambroſial ſweets diſpenſe.
Pluck'd from the ſtem where ſiſter roſes grew,
And whence thy charms their kind nutrition drew,
No more thy leaves a vivid freſhneſs boaſt;
But all their deeply bluſhing tints are loſt.
Their ſweet perfume theſe ſhrivel'd leaves retain,
Their odours undiminiſh'd ſtill remain;
And full as grateful as when on the bough,
Thou didſt within thy native garden blow,
Reflecting on thy fate, ſtill fragrant roſe,
The penſive muſe this moral emblem draws,
When bending age ſlow-creeping comes apace,
And ſteals the charms from fair Eliza's face,
Then, when her ſpeaking eye no more ſhall move
Each ſwain to rapture, and each heart to love,
Virtue remains her greateſt brighteſt charm;
('Tis this we love, and love without alarm)
This ſhines the nobleſt beauty of the fair,
No charm is wanting if but virtue's there.

EUSEBIUS.

IMPROMPTU

On the falling of a BUST of APOLLO from the Top of an Organ, upon the Head of Mr. SHIELDS, the Muſician.

By PETER PINDAR, Eſq.

ON Shields' muſical crown
Apollo leap'd down,
And lo, like a bullock, he fell'd him.
Pray is not this odd?
Not a tittle—the god
Was mad that a mortal excell'd him.

The FARMER's CREED.

By Sir John Sinclair, Bart. Preſident of the Board of Agriculture.

LET this be held the farmer's creed;
For ſtock ſeek out the choiceſt breed;
In peace and plenty let them feed.
Your land ſow with the beſt of ſeed,
Let it nor dung nor dreſſing need:
Incloſe and drain it with all ſpeed;
And you will ſoon be rich indeed.

SONG by Mr. HAYLEY.

YE cliffs, I to your airy ſteep,
Aſcend with trembling hope and fear,
To gaze on yon expanſive deep,
And watch if William's ſails appear.

Long months elapſe while here I breathe
With expectation's frequent prayer;
Till bending o'er the waves beneath,
I drop the tear of dumb deſpair.

But lo, a gliſtening ſail in view;
Tumultuous hopes ariſe:
'Tis he! I feel the viſion true,
I truſt my conſcious eyes.

His promis'd ſignal from the maſt,
My timid doubts deſtroy;
What was your pain, ye terrors paſt,
To this ecſtatic joy?

LINES,

On the BIRTH of a poſthumous CHILD; born in peculiar Circumſtances of Family Diſtreſs.

By ROBERT BURNS.

SWEET flow'ret, pledge o' mickle love,
And ward o' mony a pray'r,
What heart o' ſtane wad thou na move;
Sae helpleſs, ſweet and fair.

November hirples o'er the lea,
Chill on thy lovely form,
And gane, alas! the ſhelt'ring tree
Should ſhield thee frae the ſtorm.

May He, who gives the rain to pour,
And wings the blaſt to blaw,
Protect thee frae the driving ſhow'r,
The bitter froſt and ſnaw.

May He, the friend of woe and want,
Who heals life's various ſtounds,
Protect and guard the mother plant,
And heal her cruel wounds.

But late ſhe flouriſh'd, rooted faſt,
Fair on the ſummer morn,
Now feebly bends ſhe in the blaſt,
Unſhelter'd and forlorn.

Bleſt be thy bloom, thou lovely gem,
Unſcath'd by ruffian hand,
And from thee many a parent ſtem
Ariſe to deck our land.

VERSES ON A TEAR.

By the Author of The PLEASURES of MEMORY.

O H! that the chemiſt's magic art
Could cryſtalize this ſacred treaſure!
Long ſhould it glitter near my heart,
A ſecret ſource of penſive pleaſure.

The little brilliant, ere it fell,
Its luſtre caught from Chloe's eye;
Then, trembling, left its coral cell—
The ſpring of Senſibility!

Sweet drop of pure and pearly light!
In thee the rays of virtue ſhine;
More calmly clear, more mildly bright,
Than any gem that gilds the mine.

Benign reſtorer of the ſoul,
Who ever fly'ſt to bring relief,
When firſt ſhe feels the rude controul
Of love or pity, joy or grief.

The ſage's and the Poet's theme,
In every clime, in every age,
Thou charm'ſt in Fancy's idle dream,
In Reaſon's philoſophic page.

That very law * which moulds a tear,
And bids it trickle from its ſource,
That law preſerves the earth a ſphere,
And guides the planets in their courſe.

STANZAS, by Mr. LANGWORTHY.

On Occaſion of taking a Bee from the Lips of a beautiful Young Lady who lay ſleeping in a Arbour.

BENEATH a fragrant hawthorn's ſhade,
Within a waving grove,
Her waxen limbs Louiſa laid,
To ſleep and dream of love.

Her wanton Sylph's love-whiſpers low
Stole ſoftly on her ear;
Her lively cheeks began to glow,
Her ſighs perfum'd the air.

Her heaving boſom wore a wreath
Of flow'rs in faireſt pride,
Which drank the fragrance of her breath,
And by her cheek was dy'd.

A roving bee quick by her paſs'd,
But thrice as quick return'd—
Eager he view'd the rich repaſt—
To taſte its ſweets he burn'd.

He paus'd awhile, in mad ſuſpence,
Which flow'rs ſweet balm to ſip;
He choſe a roſe—but hurried thence,
And fix'd upon her lip.

In fam'd Hymettus' * roſeate bow'rs,
Such ſweets were ne'er repos'd;
Nor in fair Hybla's † honey'd flow'rs,
As this ſoft lip diſclos'd.

But ah! fond bee! too indiſcreet,
Such balm divine to ſip,
He drank ſo deeply of the ſweet,
He died upon her lip.

When next beneath her hawthorn's ſhade,
Louiſa's limbs are laid;
O may I ſeek the ſilent glade,
And view the beauties maid;

That when ſhe ſoftly ſinks to reſt
I may, O Love! be by,
On her dear lip to hang ſo bleſt,
So ſweet a death to die.

The FIELD MOUSE: A Fable. By Lady BURRELL.

A Mouſe, the ſleekeſt of the train
That ever ſtole the farmer's grain,
Grew tir'd of acorns, wheat, and peaſe,
And long'd to feed on ſavoury cheeſe:
A travell'd ſir, a mouſe of ſpirit,
Endow'd with wit, but little merit,
In evil hour a viſit paid,
And turn'd his inexperienc'd head
With ſtories of I know not what!
The comforts of the ſhepherd's cot,
The plenty of the farmer's barn,
And granaries replete with corn;
But moſt the luxury and waſte
Of houſes own'd by men of taſte,
Where a man-cook conſumes the meat,
Yet leaves enough for *mice* to eat,
And in whoſe pantry, cheeſe and ham
Invite a colony to cram.

The longing mouſe the ſtory hears,
He feels alternate hopes and fears,
His friend's advice he dares purſue,
And bids his rural friends adieu.

* The law of gravitation.

† Hymettus is a mountain near Athens, covered with thyme, and famous for honey.

‡ Hybla, a mountain in Sicily, univerſally celebrated for its thyme and bees.

His

When night her ſable curtain ſpread,
And all was ſilent as the dead,
Our hero crept along the way
His friend had pointed out by day,
And entering at the cellar door,
Aſcended to the pantry floor.
Behind a table there he lies,
And thinks himſelf ſecure and wiſe:
At morn a plenteous ſcene appears,
Enough to ſerve him many years;
(The reliques of a ſumptuous dinner
Are tempting to a young beginner;)
He peeps, and thinks he may come out
To taſte a bit, and look about;
No foe appears, and bolder grown,
He ſwears the treaſure is his own;
Then ſallying forth in open day,
Eats all that comes into his way.

But ſoon the greaſy *cook* is ſeen—
The mouſe looks pitiful and mean;
Scouts from the dreſſer in a fright,
Yet does not 'ſcape his watchful ſight.
The gnaw'd remains of viands rare
Are taken from the ſhelf with care,
And in their place a *trap* is ſet,
To make the thief repay the debt.
The mouſe at evening dares to peep,
And thinks his foe is faſt aſleep,
The ſavoury cheeſe his fancy draws
Within the *trap's* unfeeling jaws,
He finds too late his error there,
And dies upon the fatal ſnare:
(A martyr unto bad advice;
A leſſon to imprudent mice,
Who, diſcontented with their home,
To gayer ſcenes deſire to roam.)

An Account of the Trial of Mr. THOMAS MUIR, *Junior, for Sedition, in the High Court of Juſticiary, at* Edinburgh, *on Monday, Auguſt* 26.

MR. Thomas Muir, the younger, of Hunterſhill, was indicted for wickedly and feloniouſly exciting, in November laſt, at different meetings at Kirkintilloch, Campſie, &c. denominated Societies for Reform, by means of ſeditious ſpeeches and harangues, a ſpirit of diſloyalty and diſaffection to the king and the eſtabliſhed government—of adviſing and exhorting perſons to purchaſe and peruſe ſeditious and wicked publications and writings, (viz. Paine's Works, a Declaration of Rights, the Patriot, &c.)—calculated to produce a ſpirit of diſloyalty and diſaffection to the king and government—of diſtributing or circulating a ſeditious writing or publication of the tendency aforeſaid, or cauſing to be diſtributed or circulated ſuch ſeditious writing or publication—of producing and reading aloud, in a public meeting or conſ vocations of perſons, a ſeditious and inflammatory writing, (viz. An Addreſs from the Society of United Iriſhmen in Dublin to the Delegates for promoting a Reform in Scotland) tending to produce in the minds of the people a ſpirit of inſurrection and of oppoſition to the eſtabliſhed government—and publicly approving of and recommending, in the ſaid meeting, ſuch ſeditious and inflammatory writing, &c.

To theſe charges Mr. Muir pleaded—Not Guilty.—He ſaid, he had nothing to obſerve on the relevancy; he would truſt himſelf entirely to the jury. He had given in, when laſt before the court, written deſences, in which he declared the libel to be falſe, and that he would prove that he had all along ſupported the conſtitution. Being aſked if he had any other defence, he ſaid he reſted upon his written defence; he had uniformly adviſed the people to purſue legal and conſtitutional meaſures; and that he had alſo adviſed them to read all books written upon the great national queſtion of reform.

The jury being named, Mr. Muir objected to every one of them; he ſaid, that as the gentlemen, however reſpectable, were all ſubſcribers to the Goldſmiths-hall Aſſociation, and had offered a reward for diſcovering thoſe who had circulated what they deemed ſeditious writings, they had already prejudged him, and were therefore improper perſons to paſs upon his aſſize.

The ſolicitor-general, in reply, ſaid—that their lordſhips were equally precluded, as they, and every friend to the conſtitution, had condemned the writings of Paine.

The court unanimouſly repelled the objection.

Evidence for the Crown.

The firſt witneſs called was Alexander Johnſton, bleacher, at Kincaid Bleachfield. Mr. Muir objected to his teſtimony, as he could produce evidence to prove that the witneſs had ſaid he would do every thing in his power to have him hanged. The court aſked him if he had any particular ground for what he had ſaid. The witneſs would be purged upon oath, and therefore they repelled the objection. The witneſs being re-admitted, he ſwore, that Mr. Muir

was preſent at a meeting of the Friends of the people at Kirkintilloch, in November laſt, where he harangued the people; in which he obſerved, that this country was not properly repreſented. He entered into a compariſon between our conſtitution and the French—ſaid they were more equally repreſented, two-thirds of their national debt paid—their taxes leſs—and that they would be ſucceſsful—Adviſed them to petition parliament, and publiſh their proceedings.

Henry Freeland, preſes of the ſociety, alſo heard Mr. Muir's ſpeech. After the ſociety broke up, Mr. Muir, Freeland, and others, retiring to a public houſe, the witneſs expreſſing a wiſh to ſee Paine's Works, Mr. Muir ſaid he had a copy in his great coat pocket which he might read; that he accordingly did ſo, and lent it to ſeveral of his neighbours. The leaves of the volumes were not cut up when he got them.

Here the trial was interrupted for ſome time by a requiſition from Mr. Muir that a gentleman at the clerk's table ſhould be incloſed as an exculpatory evidence, which, after a little altercation, was paſſed from.

William Muir declined ſwearing. He ſaid it was againſt his principles, as he was a Mountaineer. Being told he muſt either ſwear or go to gaol, from whence he would never be liberated; he ſaid he could not help it, he hoped the Lord was there as well as any where elſe. He was accordingly committed. His ſcruples being afterward removed by the Rev. Mr. Dun, he was examined, and ſwore he ſaw Freeland take Paine's works out of Mr. Muir's pocket; that Mr. Muir gave the witneſs a copy of the Political Progreſs, and ten or twelve numbers of the Patriot; that he deſired him to ſhew them to the members of his ſociety, and would not take them back.

John Brown was at the meeting at Kirkintilloch in November, but was not ſure whether Paine's book was mentioned.

Ann Fiſher ſaid, ſhe was ſervant to Mr. Muir's father in autumn laſt, and that he was then much employed in reading and writing, but ſhe did not know what; that ſhe carried from him to the printer, a Declaration of Rights, marked with ſome corrections, to be reprinted; that a number of country people coming to the ſhop of Mr. Muir's father about this time, a deal of converſation paſſed concerning Paine's Rights of Man, which ſhe has heard the priſoner ſay was a good book; that ſhe ſeveral times bought both parts of the book, and gave them to different people; that Mr. Muir wiſhed his hair-dreſſer (a Mr. Wilſon) to purchaſe them, and keep them in his ſhop to enlighten the people, and that it confuted Burke entirely; that ſhe has ſeen the Paiſley Declaration in Mr. Muir's houſe, and a Dialogue between the Governors and the Governed, which laſt he ſaid was very clever, and written by one of the firſt men in France; that ſhe heard Mr. Muir read part of the Paiſley Declaration in his father's back ſhop, and that the common topic of his converſation was politics; that Mr. Muir ſaid when the Reform took place, he would be a member for Calder; that members would then be allowed 30s. or 40s. a day, and that none but honeſt men would be admitted, to keep the conſtitution clean; that when the conſtitution was put upon a proper foundation, they would get new counſellors, who would govern the nation with juſtice; that France would ſoon be the moſt flouriſhing kingdom in the world, for they aboliſhed tyranny; that ſhe has cauſed the organiſt on the ſtreets of Glaſgow to play *ça ira*, at Mr. Muir's deſire.

Thomas Wilſon, barber, ſaid, that Mr. Muir exhorted him to purchaſe Paine's Rights of Man.

John Muir ſaid, that Mr. Muir's maid bought a copy of Paine for him.

James Campbell, writer to the ſignet, ſaid, he was preſent at a meeting of the convention of delegates in December laſt; that Mr. Muir read the Addreſs from the United Society of Iriſhmen, and moved that it ſhould be anſwered; which was oppoſed by others in the ſociety, and at laſt negatived.

James Denholm, writer in Edinburgh, depoſed to the ſame effect.

Mr. Muir having admitted the declarations he emitted at Edinburgh and Stranraer to be his, and alſo the pocket-book and papers found upon him, the evidence for the crown was cloſed.

Evidence for Mr. Muir.

William Skirving, of Strathruddle, ſaid, that Mr. Muir went to London, to be preſent at a meeting of the friends of the people; that he received a letter from Mr. Muir at London, giving an account of what he did at the meeting; that it was the opinion of the ſociety in London that he ſhould go to France, in order to ſee if he could have any influence to prevent the execution of the king; that he received a letter from Mr. Muir at Paris, informing him that he would return to his friends in Scotland immediately; that he had frequently

quently been in company with Mr. Muir, both in ſocieties and privately, and never heard him ſpeak againſt the conſtitution, but the reverſe; that his whole conduct was of a contrary tendency, and that he diſapproved of Mr. Paine's principles of government.

Several other reſpectable witneſſes ſpoke to the ſame effect.

The lord advocate addreſſed the jury on the part of the crown. He ſaid, that if in the range of his official duty, in bringing perſons to that bar accuſed of ſimilar offences, there had been any one whoſe actions pointed him out as the moſt proper object for proſecution, or whoſe conduct was more peculiarly marked by the ſpirit of diabolical miſchief, this was the man! Under the pretence of reform, he had been at particular pains to inſtil into the minds of the uninformed and unwary, doctrines of the moſt pernicious tendency, deſtructive of all order, and calculated to ſubvert and overturn the conſtitution; and by an inſidious compariſon between France and this country, had left little room to doubt that his wiſh and motive was to introduce the ſame anarchy and confuſion here, which, in that infatuated nation, had occaſioned ſuch bloodſhed and ravage. Of the writings of that wretched outcaſt Paine, which he had not read until his official capacity had required it, and then indeed he had read the whole, he would ſay little! the opinion of the country ſufficiently marked the deteſtation in which they were held. The boaſted interference of the priſoner to ſave the unfortunate king of France, ſufficiently pointed out that he was a miſſionary to that country.

His lordſhip then recapitulated thoſe parts of the evidence, which, in his opinion, indelibly ſtamped the criminal intentions of the priſoner, whoſe actions juſtified his ſtigmatizing him as the peſt of Scotland; and pointed out the ſuſpicious circumſtances which attended both his retreat from and his return to this country. He read an appoſite quotation from Monteſquieu, containing a ſpirited eulogium on the Britiſh conſtitution; and concluded, by demanding from the jury ſuch a verdict as their regard for their country and its laws, which they were bound to preſerve untainted and inviolate, and the voice of their conſcience muſt naturally dictate to them.

Mr. Muir (who managed his own defence, unſupported by any counſel) then roſe. He ſaid, "that amid the inquiſitorial keenneſs of his adverſaries, aided as they had been by domeſtic ſpies, it was a conſolation to him that his moral character had been unſullied and unimpeached. The accuſation of ſedition was merely a pretence; his real crime was, he had been a friend to reform, and to this charge, had it been ſo laid, he would have pleaded guilty at once, and ſaved the court the laſſitude ariſing from ſo tedious a trial. But why ſhould he be ſingled out as a victim on this occaſion? Were not the preſent miniſter (Mr. Pitt) and the duke of Richmond, at one period, equally the advocates of reform? And if he was the peſt of Scotland, with equal propriety might they be termed the peſts of England. Nay, not to go out of court, was not the lord advocate himſelf, not many months ago, a reformer, in being a delegate for amending the repreſentation of the counties of Scotland? He quoted Blackſtone, to ſhew that his opinion of the repreſentation of this country was ſimilar to his own.

As to the affairs of France, of which ſo much had been ſaid, with reſpect to ſome advantages they poſſeſſed by their conſtitution and their mode of taxation, he had only ſtated facts, which he truſted could not be conſidered as ſeditious. He denied his having any miſſion to that country, and unleſs any anxiety to prevent the effuſion of blood was criminal, no circumſtance attending his viſit to that country could be deemed ſo. He then mentioned the circumſtances which occaſioned the delay of his return to this country from France; the difficulties he encountered in effecting it, and the readineſs he had ever ſhewn to ſubject himſelf to a verdict of his countrymen. He went at conſiderable length into ſeveral parts of the evidence, and concluded with an earneſt appeal to the jury, as they valued their reputation, as they regarded their future peace of mind, to return a verdict of acquittal.

The lord juſtice clerk ſummed up the evidence, and commented with much ſtrength of language on the different parts of it, but left it to the jury to draw their own concluſion.

The court roſe about two o'clock in the morning, and at twelve on Saturday the jury returned a verdict, finding the priſoner *guilty*.

The court then proceeded to pronounce ſentence, and, after a ſhort deliberation, ordained him to be tranſported beyond ſeas, to ſuch place as his majeſty, with the advice of his privy council, ſhall judge proper, for the ſpace of *fourteen years*.

Mr. Muir obſerved, that had he been carried from the bar to the ſcaffold, he would

would have met his fate with equal coolneſs, ſo convinced was he of the juſtice of his conduct.—He was then conveyed to the Tolbooth.

The court was exceedingly crowded during the whole of the trial, which laſted ſixteen hours.

AFFAIRS of FRANCE,

Continued from Page 150.

ACCORDING to the report of the committee of public welfare, to whom, on the 7th of July, the developement of certain alledged plots had been referred, it appeared, that in the night previous to the commotion of the 31ſt of May, the alarm gun was to have been ſpiked, the cannon of the commons and at the temple were to have been ſeized, the ſon of the late Louis Capet was to have been declared king, and his mother regent; that the individuals who compoſed this conſpiracy, were to have been, in their own right, life-guards to the new king, and to have been decorated with a black and white ribaud, and a medal repreſenting an eagle overthrowing anarchy. In conſequence of this report, the national convention decreed, that Buzot, Barbaroux, Gorſas, Lanjuinais, and all thoſe who had fled from the decree of arreſt iſſued againſt them on the and of June, were traitors to their country; that there was room for a decree of accuſation againſt Gerſonne, Gaudet, Vergniaud, and Biroteau, as accomplices in the plot; but that Bertraud, and other detained deputies, be recalled to their poſts, as having been more deluded than guilty. A decree of accuſation was likewiſe paſſed, on the motion of Chabot, againſt the famous Condorcet, for having written againſt the new conſtitution.

On the 14th of July, the anniverſary of the revolution, Marat, to whoſe inſtigation the maſſacres of the 2nd of September 1792, were attributed, and who was one of the moſt violent of the party of the Mountain, was himſelf aſſaſſinated by a woman, named Charlotte Cordé, who conceived, that by this act ſhe ſhould render her country the moſt eſſential ſervice. The next day, in the convention, Bentable demanded, that they ſhould think of the means of honouring his memory. Chabot demanded, that the convention ſhould attend his funeral: 'for,' ſaid he, 'ſince the Mountain is to ſhare his fate, we ought to ſwear upon his tomb to defend, as conſtantly as he did, the cauſe of the people.' This was adopted in theſe terms: 'the aſſembly ſhall be preſent in a body at the funeral obſequies of citizen Marat, one of its members, who had been aſſaſſinated in a cowardly manner, for the cauſe of liberty.' The convention charged citizens David and Maure to concert with the ſection concerning the ceremony, and to fix the time. Accordingly, on the 17th, the funeral was celebrated with great ſolemnity; all the ſections of Paris joining in the proceſſion; and he was interred in the yard of the club of the Cordeliers, between four linden trees.

Charlotte Cordé was tried the ſame day for the murder of Marat, 'the friend of the people,' by the revolutionary tribunal. Her countenance diſplayed heroic diſdain, and her anſwers, by their boldneſs, ſtruck every ſpectator with aſtoniſhment. At the beginning of her trial, ſhe thus addreſſed her judges:—'I did not expect to appear before you—I always thought I ſhould be delivered up to the rage of the people, torn in pieces, and that my head, ſtuck upon the top of a pike, would have preceded Marat on his ſtate-bed, to ſerve as a rallying point to Frenchmen, if there ſtill are any worthy of that name. But, happen what will, if I have the honours of the guillotine, and my clay-cold remains are buried, they will ſoon have conferred on them the honours of the pantheon, and my memory will be more honoured in France, than that of Judith in Bethulia.' Sentence of death was pronounced upon this reſolute woman, and ſhe was executed in the evening.

The aſſaſſination of Marat was not an indication of the diſſatisfaction of a mere individual in the proceedings of the 31ſt of May and and of June; for while addreſſes were poured into the national convention from numberleſs quarters, declaring their adherence to that aſſembly, and their acceptance of the new conſtitution, the South of France (Lyons, Marſeilles, and Toulon in particular) exhibited ſuch ſymptoms of diſcontent, as threatened to add another civil war to that already raging in the late provinces of Bretagne and Poitou.

In this perilous ſituation of the republic, the want of confidence in their generals, if not the actual treachery of the latter, ſeemed to open a new ſource of danger. Cuſtine, in particular, in whoſe patriotiſm

and talents, the greateſt dependence had been placed, was now impeached, and ſent a priſoner to the Abbey.

On the 25th of July, Bonvalet preſented to the convention the buſt of Marat. The convention accepted the homage offered by citizen Bonvalet, and decreed that the buſts of Marat, Michael Lepelletier, Dampierre, and Brutus, be placed in the hall of debate. And the next, Julien, as ſpeaker of a deputation from the club of the Cordeliers, announced, that the club had reſolved, to erect next Sunday, in their hall, an altar to the heart of Marat. The convention decreed, that a deputation of 24 of its members be preſent at the ceremony.

On the 1ſt of Auguſt, Barrere moved a decree of ſeveral articles, (which was adopted), the purport of which was, to denounce the Britiſh *government* to Europe and the Britiſh *nation*; to declare traitors all Frenchmen who ſhall place money in the Engliſh funds; to arreſt the ſubjects of all the powers now at war with France, particularly the Engliſh; that all the family of the Capets be baniſhed from the French territory, thoſe excepted who are under the ſword of the law, and the two children of Louis Capet, who ſhould remain in the temple; that Marie Antoniette be delivered over to the revolutionary tribunal, and immediately conducted to the priſon of the Conciergerie; that the ſiſter of Louis Capet remain in the Temple, till after the judgment of Marie Antoniette; and that all the *tombs* of the kings, that are at St. Denis, and in the departments, be deſtroyed on the 10th of Auguſt.

Accordingly, in the night between the 1ſt and 2nd of Auguſt, two municipal officers repaired to the tower of the Temple, a little before the clock proclaimed midnight, to announce to the captive queen the decree of the convention reſpecting her removal to the priſon of the Conciergerie.

Her majeſty was in bed. 'Muſt I riſe, then?' ſhe aſked. The officers anſwered in the affirmative. She then begged them to withdraw, that ſhe might dreſs herſelf; and they complied.

When the queen was dreſſed, the officers ſearched her, and found 25 louis d'ors, which they took from her, beſide her pocket-book. Her majeſty uſed a thouſand entreaties, to be permitted either to keep the pocket-book, or for them to ſeal it up, and take a minute of its contents. After many altercations, the queen recognized one of the municipal officers to be the ſame who ſignified to her laſt year her ſeparation from the princeſs de Lambelle, when the latter was removed from the Temple to the Hotel de la Force. 'Sir,' ſaid ſhe, 'the ſeparation which you announced to me a twelvemonth ago was very painful; but I find the preſent not leſs melancholy.' She begged to be ſuffered to take ſome bed-linen with her. 'I could wiſh,' ſaid ſhe, 'not to be left in foul linen, as it happened to me laſt year in the houſe of the Feuillans.' She then made up a change of linen in a parcel, beſide three ſhifts, a few caps, and a black ſilk jacket and coat.

The queen afterward begged to have an interview with her daughter and madame Elizabeth. This was permitted, after ſome heſitation. Madame Elizabeth ſtepped firſt into the apartment, melting into tears, bordering on a ſtate of deſpair, and almoſt deprived of her ſenſes. They locked each other faſt in their arms.

Her majeſty preſerved the moſt unſhaken fortitude in this trying ſcene. When her royal daughter appeared, ſhe ſaid, 'my dear daughter! thou knoweſt thy religion, have recourſe to its conſolation in every ſituation of life.'

The queen then deſired to ſee her ſon. She manifeſted the moſt poignant regret and anxiety: but her demand was refuſed; the officers told her, 'your ſon is innocent, and he will not be hurt.'

Her majeſty then took the parcel containing her linen under her arm, deſcended the ſtairs, and found a miſerable hackney coach waiting for her in the court-yard. When getting into the carriage, one of the officers offered to help her; but ſhe gently puſhed back his hand, telling him that ſhe wanted no aſſiſtance.

The queen was dreſſed in white lawn, and wore a black girdle. She was conducted to the priſon through a narrow paſſage, very badly lighted, in which the ſudden barking of two maſtiffs threw her into convulſive fits.

The officers were then obliged to carry her to the priſon on their arms; and being arrived there, ſhe continued to be ſo very ill, that, for one hour, her life was threatened with inſtant diſſolution. She recovered, however, in the morning.

The cell which that unfortunate princeſs inhabits is half under ground, only eight feet long, and eight feet wide. Her couch conſiſts of a hard ſtraw bed, and very thin coverings; her diet, ſoup and boiled meat.

All the perſonal graces of that once lovely princeſs have deſerted her countenance, which exhibits the wretched picture of unſpeakable diſtreſs and declining life!

The

The decree which orders the destruction of the tombs and mausoleums of the kings and ancient warriors of France has been put in force at St. Denis; that of the great Turenne was as fresh as ever.

No affair of great moment occurred till Friday, Aug. 16, when the convention having heard its committee of public welfare, decreed as follows:

1. The French people declare, through the organ of their representatives, that it is about to rise in a mass for the defence of its liberty and constitution, and to deliver France from her enemy.

2. The committee of public welfare shall present to-morrow the mode of organising this grand national movement.

On the 20th of August, the convention decreed, that to perpetuate the memory of the re-union of the 10th of August, a brass medal should be struck, with a representation of nature on one side, and on the other the ark of alliance and the fasces, with these words: 'constitution accepted indivisibly by the French the 10th of August 1793, the second year of the republic.'

Barrère, in the name of the committee of public safety, presented the mode of conducting the general movement which is to take place.

The regulating commissioners are to have at their disposal for this grand armament all the provisions, arms, and workmen, which are to be distributed in 17 points; these are Soissons, Chalons, Nancy, Colmar, Besançon, Macon, Grenoble, Avignon, Narbonne, Toulouse, Tarn, Augoulesme, Tours, St. Maloe, Constances, and Orleans; by distributing the forces at these different points, the enemies both internal and external will be subdued, and the war at an end before the 1st of January next.

The regulating commissioners are to send before hand the general officers, the war commissaries, the provisions, and in fine every thing requisite for an armed force.

Chabot moved, in addition to this plan, the transportation of all those who by habit, interest, or consanguinity, are supposed to be inclined to aristocracy. Talien and Amar were of opinion that fortresses should be appointed in each department for the confinement of those persons who refused liberty.

The whole plan, however, being disapproved by Danton and Gaston, Barrere himself approved of its being sent back to the committee.

On Friday the 23d of August, Barrere made a second report on the subject; and the convention adopted the plan, which consisted of 18 articles. Of this decree a full idea may be formed from the following articles only:

Art. I. From this present moment till that when all the enemies shall have been driven from the territory of the republic, all Frenchmen shall be in permanent readiness for the service of the armies.

The young men shall march to the combat: the married men shall forge arms, and transport the provisions: the women shall make tents and clothes, and wait in the hospitals: the children shall make lint of old linen: the old men shall cause themselves to be carried to the public squares, to excite the courage of the warriors, to preach hatred against kings, and the unity of the republic.

Art. II. The national edifices shall be converted into store-houses: the ground of the cellars shall be washed with ley, to extract the saltpetre.

Art. III. The musquets and arms of calibre shall be immediately delivered to those who are to march against the enemy: the internal service of the republic shall be performed with fowling-pieces.

Art. IV. All saddle horses shall be given up, to complete the cavalry: the draught horses and others, except those employed for purposes of agriculture, shall convey the artillery and provisions.

Art. V. The committee of public welfare is charged to take all necessary measures to establish, without delay, an extraordinary manufacture of arms of all kinds, suitable to the efforts of the French nation. It is authorised in consequence, to form all the establishments, manufactories, and working places, which shall be deemed necessary for the execution of those works; and to summon throughout the republic all the artists and workmen who can contribute to their success. The sum of thirty millions shall be at the disposal of the minister at war, to be taken out of the four hundred and twenty-eight millions of livres in assignats, which are in reserve in the chest with three keys. The central establishment of this extraordinary manufacture shall be at Paris.

Art. VI. The representatives of the people sent into the departments to execute the present law, shall have the same authority, and shall concert measures with the committee of public welfare; they are invested with the unlimited powers attributed to the representatives of the people with the armies.

Art. VII. No Frenchman ſummoned to ſerve, ſhall be ſuffered to ſend a ſubſtitute. The public functionaries ſhall remain on their poſts.

Art. VIII. The riſing or movement ſhall be general: the unmarried or widowed citizens, from the age of 18 to 25, ſhall march firſt; they ſhall form, without delay, in the chief place of their diſtrict; they ſhall daily be exerciſed till the day of their departure.

Art. XI. The battalion which ſhall be organized in every diſtrict, ſhall be ranged under a banner with this inſcription: 'the French nation riſen againſt the tyrants.'

On the 27th of Auguſt, the revolutionary tribunal found general Cuſtine guilty of having co-operated in the manœuvres and correſpondence of the enemies of the republic; and the following ſentence was immediately paſſed upon him:

'Adam Philip Cuſtine is condemned to death, and confiſcation of his property for the benefit of the republic. The ſentence of death ſhall be executed, in the *Place of the Revolution*, between ten and eleven o'clock in the morning (of the 28th), read, printed, and poſted up, wherever it ſhall ſeem proper.'

The preſident called upon the priſoner to ſay, if he had any objection to make to the application of the law? To which Cuſtine anſwered—'I have no defenders, they have diſappeared; my conſcience makes me no reproach; I die innocent.'—The people heard the ſentence with loud applauſe.

Cuſtine was brought to the place of execution on the morning of the 28th, where he ſhewed neither the calm reſignation of conſcientious innocence, nor the indignant firmneſs that men of proud ſpirits, who have no ſuch conſolation, ſubſtitute for it. He kiſſed the crucifix, embraced his confeſſor, heſitated, uſed every artifice to gain a few minutes longer time, and at laſt was brought to the guillotine by force.

On the 28th of Auguſt, on the motion of Barrere, it was decreed, that France ſhall continue in a ſtate of revolution until its independence is acknowledged by all the other powers.

A decree was paſſed for raiſing a compulſatory loan of a thouſand millions: the plan of this decree is, that all perſons ſhall give an account of their property and poſſeſſions, and ſuch an aſſeſſment be made as the committee of finance ſhall think requiſite.

[To be continued.]

AFFAIRS of POLAND.

Warſaw, Auguſt 24.

THE diet at Grodno reſolved, in the ſitting of the 16th inſtant, that the Ruſſian ambaſſador ſhall be requeſted, in the name of the king and the ſtates of Poland, to be preſent at the conferences with M. de Burkholtz, the Pruſſian miniſter, whenever the deliberations are directed toward objects of importance.

On the 17th inſtant, the ſtates ſigned, at Grodno, the ratification of the treaty with Ruſſia; and a courier was immediately diſpatched to Peterſburgh, to announce that event.

The debates in the ſitting of the diet of the 17th, were extremely violent and ſtormy, and laſted till three o'clock in the morning.

The votes for the ratification amounted to 63; thoſe againſt it to 21; abſolute majority for the ratification 42.

Warſaw, Sept. 7. The treaty with Pruſſia was ſigned on the 3d inſtant at Grodno. The Ruſſian ambaſſador had, from the 28th to the 30th of Auguſt, delivered three ſeparate notes to the diet, acquainting it, that field-marſhal Von Moellendorff had, ever ſince the 20th of Auguſt, the king of Pruſſia's orders to enter with his army into the diſtricts of Cracow and Sendomir, and to commence hoſtilities, ſhould the diet not have ſigned the treaty. That the field-marſhal had received new orders to this effect, ſhould the ſtates not have named a day for its ratification.

The Ruſſian ambaſſador accordingly fixed the 3d inſtant to ſettle this buſineſs. The treaty has undergone ſome little alteration, through the medium of the Ruſſian ambaſſador.

It is ſaid, that field marſhal Von Moellendorff is appointed governor-general of eaſt, weſt, and ſouth Pruſſia, and general Kalkreuth governor of Berlin.

☞ *For the extent of territory thus acquired by the Empreſs of Ruſſia and the King of Pruſſia, by this ſecond forcible Partition of Poland, ſee the Manifeſtoes of the two Courts in our Magazine for June laſt.*

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

SEPTEMBER 4.

YESterday died, at his lodgings at Deptford, a native of Otaheite, who was lately brought over by captain Bligh, in the Providence frigate. He was ſubject to pulmonary affections, had been frequently ill during the voyage, and twice recovered from imminent death, by the unremitting attentions of his friends, who were ever ready to contribute whatever had a tendency to promote his health and comfort, particularly his patron captain Bligh.—This unfortunate young man was ſeized ſhortly after his arrival with inteſtine complaints, and became much better, when a violent recurrence of his ſymptoms on Friday morning tended to accelerate his diſſolution: his native ſuavity of manners had endeared him to all who knew him, and his death is ſincerely lamented by every individual engaged in the expedition, in whoſe memory he will long exiſt.

SEPTEMBER 5.

The Shark ſloop of war is arrived at Portſmouth, with the following intelligence:

A very deſperate action took place on the coaſt of America, near Sandy Hook, on the 1ſt of Auguſt, between the Boſton frigate, of 32 guns and 220 men, and the Ambuſcade, a French frigate of 38 guns and 300 men. The circumſtances of the action are highly honourable to the memory of captain Courtenay, who unfortunately fell in it.

The Boſton was ſent out upon the Newfoundland ſtation; and it was only by the many reports which arrived, of captures made by the Ambuſcade, that ſhe was induced to depart from it, for the purpoſe of contending with the French frigate. She reached Sandy Hook, on the 1ſt of Auguſt, and being miſtaken by the Ambuſcade for one of the four French frigates, cruiſing in that neighbourhood, had a boat's crew from the enemy ſent to her aſſiſtance, the ſeizure of which explained her purpoſe, and brought the Ambuſcade out of harbour.

The action then commenced, and was gallantly ſuſtained on both ſides for upward of two hours, during which captain Courtenay, the firſt lieutenant, and the lieutenant of marines, were killed. The number of men killed and wounded has been variouſly ſtated.

The two frigates parted with mutual conſent. The Ambuſcade as well as the Boſton was much ſhattered, and her loſs muſt have been proportionate.

This encounter with a ſuperior force having been voluntarily produced on the part of the Boſton, for the purpoſe of effecting a uſeful object, the merit of that deſign, and the reſolution with which it was endeavoured to be executed while there was any chance of ſucceſs, place it among the actions of which the Britiſh navy may honourably boaſt.

A letter received from an officer on board the Pluto, which ſailed in company with the Boſton, gives the following particulars:

'St. John's, Newfoundland, Aug. 20, 1793.

'On the 17th ult. I ſailed in his majeſty's ſhip Pluto, from this place, in company with the Boſton frigate, of 32 guns, commanded by captain Courtenay, on a cruiſe. After cruiſing to the ſouthward about three weeks, we fell in with and captured the Lutin, a fine brig, mounting 16 guns and four ſwivels, from Martinico bound to Havre de Grace, which we took after an engagement of three quarters of an hour, without the loſs of a ſingle man either killed or wounded. The Frenchman had three killed and four wounded, and another has ſince died in conſequence of his wounds.

'On the 31ſt of July, the Boſton arrived off Sandy Hook, and hoiſted French colours, which decoyed the Ambuſcade French frigate lying in that harbour, the captain of which ſent off his firſt lieutenant, ſuppoſing the Boſton to be one of her conſorts. The boat was ſurpriſed, and the officers and crew ſent on board our frigate, after which the boat was ſunk.

'On this, the French frigate made ſail, and the Boſton prepared for action. The two ſhips ſoon met within piſtol ſhot: the action continued for upward of two hours, during which the Boſton had her maſts and rigging much ſhattered.

'Captain Courtenay and the firſt lieutenant of marines were killed by the ſame ſhot. The Ambuſcade had a tender with her, which ſupplied her with freſh hands three different times. The Boſton had eleven men killed and twenty wounded, beſide the two officers; and finding the frigate

frigate an over match, ſhe ſteered away, and arrived at this place terribly mauled. The Ambuſcade likewiſe ſuffered very ſeverely.'

SEPTEMBER 7.

A ſmall neat marble monument has been juſt ſet up in the middle aiſle of Cripplegate church, to the memory of the great poet Milton. It conſiſts of a buſt, as 'animated' as the chiſſel of the artiſt can make it, the ſculpture of Bacon. There is no 'ſtoried urn,' but underneath is a plain tablet, with the following inſcription: 'John Milton, author of Paradiſe Loſt, born December 1608, died November 1674. His father, John Milton, died March 1646. They were both interred in this church.'

SEPTEMBER 8.

On Saturday laſt, Mr. Dowling, the ſurgeon, concerned in the trial of captain Kimber, was diſcharged from Newgate on bail; having been allowed to tranſport himſelf.

SEPTEMBER 9.

On the 5th inſtant, in a field in the poſſeſſion of Mr. Moor, in the pariſh of Felmingham, Norfolk, a ſpot of ground of nearly twenty yards in circumference, of a circular form, ſuddenly ſunk to the depth of five feet; and on Saturday following another chaſm, nine feet in depth, and of about the ſame extent and form as the afore-mentioned, was diſcovered in a field in the poſſeſſion of Mr. Ham, in the ſame pariſh. It is ſuppoſed they both ſunk at the ſame time, although the latter was not obſerved till the day above ſtated. The earth is much cracked round the ſpots, but the parts ſettled are perfectly whole.

SEPTEMBER 11.

This day the ſeſſions commenced at the Old Bailey, when twenty-ſix priſoners were tried, three of whom were capitally convicted, viz. Valentine Harriſon, for robbing Eliſabeth Jones, in a dwelling-houſe, of two guineas, and one half guinea, her property; Thomas Glover, for ſtealing in the houſe of Francis Snell, a ſilver milk-pot, and a number of other articles, value 40s. and upward, his property; and John Gabriel, for privately ſtealing in the houſe of William Burch, two ſilver candleſticks, value 10l. his property.

SEPTEMBER 12.

The earl of Lauderdale yeſterday preſented a petition, ſigned by a number of the inhabitants of the city of Glaſgow, craving the royal attention to the bad ſtate of the commerce of that city, and hoping a ſpeedy end to the war.

SEPTEMBER 13.

Yeſterday, at the Old Bailey, three priſoners were capitally convicted, viz. William Bradſtreet, for a burglary in the dwelling-houſe of ſir John Trevelyan, and ſtealing a large quantity of plate and other articles, his property; Richard Clements, for feloniouſly ſtealing in the dwelling-houſe of John Meredith, four guineas and 36s. his property; and Samuel Young, for robbing Benjamin Burroughs on the highway of a metal watch, his property.

This day, one priſoner was capitally convicted; namely, Jeremiah Reading, for uttering a falſe, forged, and counterfeit bill of exchange, purporting to be drawn by one John White, dated Briſtol, February 21, 1792, for 80l. upon John King, eſq. and excepted by him, payable to the ſaid Jeremiah or order, with intent to defraud William Darby, and Co.

Stephen Child, a clerk in the bank, was indicted for forging a certain receipt, purporting to be a receipt of William Andrew to E. Harriſon, for the payment of 640l. 10s. being in conſideration of 600l. ſtock in the five per cent. annuities, dated May 17, 1793. A caſhier in the bank proved the application of Mrs. Harriſon for her dividend on 600l. ſtock; but that, on looking over the books, he could only find the ſum of 400l. againſt that name. On her producing the receipt, he ſent for Child, who deſired ſhe might be paid for the 400l. and he would account with her for the reſt, which ſhe had lent him—That with reſpect to the name of Smith on the receipt, he had done it merely from having loſt the original one, and without any other intention. Mrs. Harriſon not appearing, the priſoner was acquitted.

SEPTEMBER 14.

On Thurſday night, prince Adolphus arrived *incog.* at the Hanoverian office, Bury-ſtreet, St. James's, from the Britiſh camp before Dunkirk. His royal highneſs ſlept at Mr. Beſt's, in Thatched-houſe-court, and yeſterday morning ſet off to ſee his royal parents at Kew palace.

SEPTEMBER 18.

On Saturday was capitally convicted at the Old Bailey, James Randall, for robbing James Seyers on the highway of two guineas and a half in gold, and 9s. in

ſilver; fourteen convicted of felony, and eleven acquitted.

On Monday was capitally convicted, John Seville, alias Wright, for feloniouſly ſtealing in a dwelling-houſe, a large quantity of plate, of the value of ſeveral hundred pounds, the property of Richard Hemming, of Bond-ſtreet, goldſmith.

And yeſterday, was capitally convicted, John Thompſon, for feloniouſly forging and counterfeiting a certain receipt, purporting to be ſigned by Edward Howell, for the payment of 15l. with intent to defraud the hon. Henry St. John.

The ſame day the ſeſſions ended, when judgment of death was paſſed upon ten convicts; one was ſentenced to be tranſported for fourteen years, nineteen for ſeven years, twelve to be impriſoned in Newgate, eleven in Clerkenwell Bridewell, two to be publicly, and two privately whipped, and ſeventy-nine were diſcharged by proclamation.

The ſeſſions adjourned until Wedneſday, the 30th of October next.

The ſentences intended to be paſſed upon twenty of the priſoners convicted this ſeſſions of felonies, were reſpited on condition of their entering and continuing to ſerve his majeſty.

Eleven capital convicts of former ſeſſions, were pardoned on condition of their being tranſported to New South-Wales for the term of their natural lives; and three on condition of being impriſoned in Clerkenwell Bridewell.

SEPTEMBER 19.

At Perth, Mr. Fiſche Palmer has been found guilty of writing a ſeditious handbill; his ſentence, like that of Mr. Muir, (*See page 217*) is tranſportation; the term ſeven years.

SEPTEMBER 23.

On Saturday afternoon, a perſon paſſing an apparently empty houſe in Hatton-garden, was alarmed by the cries of ſome one within, which were repeated in a moſt piteous ſtrain; he knocked at the door, but could not obtain admittance, yet ſtill heard the lamentations of a man within the houſe, which determined him to break open the door; he obtained aſſiſtance, and accompliſhed his purpoſe; when all the doors and windows of the houſe were found faſt ſhut; but, upon entering a ſcullery beyond a back kitchen, they found a young man, ſtretched at full length upon a thick board, to which he was ſecured by ropes round his body, arms, and legs; and the board faſtened by a chain to a copper that ſtood cloſe by. The face of the young man was covered with a white woollen night-cap, through which two ſmall holes were made, that he might ſee out of—cloſe to him were five bottles of water and a proportionate quantity of ham and bread, which were placed on each ſide of him, ſo that he could reach it. A green baize and a rug were found near him.

The young man, whoſe name is James Blagrave Campbell, is a clerk in the banking-houſe of meſſrs. Vere, Lucadou, and Co. in Lombard-ſtreet. On Saturday morning, he went to the above houſe to preſent a bill for payment; the windows of the houſe were then opened, and it had all the appearance of being inhabited; he knocked at the door, which was opened to him, and he was deſired to walk in; he had no ſooner entered the paſſage than the ſtreet door was ſhut, and ſeveral men ruſhed upon him, who inſtantly drew a cap over his face, over which they threw a green baize, and above that a rug; they then ordered him not to cry out, threatening that if he made the leaſt noiſe they would murder him. In this ſituation they carried him into the place in which he was found in ſo deplorable a ſtate, where, after having taken from him his pocket-book, containing property to a conſiderable amount, they faſtened him down, and left him, as has been deſcribed. It is unneceſſary to adduce any reaſons to prove that this extraordinary robbery was a concerted plan. The houſe had been empty for ſome time. The young man, when found, was quite exhauſted from the terror he had been in, and from ſix hours continued exertion to make himſelf heard.

Portſmouth, Sept. 21. This morning, about ten o'clock, his royal highneſs prince Frederick Auguſtus, accompanied by the hon. captain Stopford, and ſome foreign gentlemen of diſtinction, landed from the Aquilon, at the New Sally Port. He was received by colonel Trigge, our deputy-governor, lord Berkeley, admiral ſir Peter Parker, rear-admiral Caldwell, commiſſioner Saxton, captain Gayton, captain Saumarez, &c. of the navy. A party of the royal ſouth Glouceſterſhire militia, with the band of the regiment, attended, to eſcort his royal highneſs to the Fountain-inn, where a moſt ſumptuous breakfaſt was prepared, and where ſuch of the captains as happened not to be preſent at his landing, were introduced to him. After ſtaying at the inn near three hours, his royal highneſs with his retinue left this place about one o'clock for Windſor.

The

The Aquilon gave a royal ſalute, and her yards were manned, on the prince's quitting the ſhip; the royal ſtandard was hoiſted, and the guns on the platform fired alſo a royal ſalute on his landing. A great number of perſons of all ranks were preſent, and welcomed his royol highneſs with loud and reiterated huzzas on his coming aſhore.

AMERICA.

New-York, July 13. Captain John Fanning, of the brig Union, who arrived on Sunday in fourteen days from Cape François, gives us the following melancholy particulars reſpecting the fate of the unhappy iſland of St. Domingo.

On the 18th of June, the civil commiſſioners, meſſrs. Santhonax and Polverel, arrived at the Cape from Port-au Prince: they immediately ſuſpended moni. Galbaud, the governor and commander of the troops at that place, and ſent him on board. On the 12th, a number of Mulattoes were encouraged by theſe gentlemen to come into the town, who, by unfair means, armed all the negroes belonging to the citizens, and encouraged them to aſſiſt in deſtroying the whites; which ſcene actually began on the 20th about noon, when a moſt horrid maſſacre enſued; neither women nor children were ſpared; upward of 10,000 white inhabitants were butchered, and 2,500 ſaved themſelves in the French American veſſels in the harbour. The wretches then began to plunder the town, after which they ſet fire to it; and on the 23d, when the captain ſailed, the burning was going on, and there was only the church, government-houſe, le Caſerne, and Gregorie ſaved; they left there the Amerique, of 74 guns. Captain Fanning ſailed in company with about 150 ſail of veſſels, bound to different ports in America, under convoy of two French ſeventy-four's, and four frigates, who were bound, as we ſuppoſe, to Boſton or Newport, ſo that we may ſoon expect to hear of their arrival.

Cape François was a neat, well-built city, the buildings chiefly of ſtone, ſaid to be as large as New-York. The large church has eſcaped the flames, being all of ſtone, and covered ſo as the fire cannot make any impreſſion. The government-houſe has ſuffered much from the cannon ſhot. The ſoldiery were ſtill engaged in fighting in town. It is ſuppoſed that this diſaſtrous affair proceeded entirely from the difference between the two commiſſioners, who aſſumed the power, and the governor Galbaud, who thought his rightful authority invaded. He headed a number of ſailors from the ſhips, who made the firſt attack, and repulſed the Mulattoes, but they having at hand a number of negroes with arms, repulſed the ſailors and whites.

Captain Fanning obſerves, that he could have carried off loads of plunder when he came away, as the inhabitants had left their houſes and property to ſave their lives. Captain Fanning parted with the fleet the 30th of June.

BIRTHS.

GRAND Ducheſs of Tuſcany, a ſon.

Hon. Mrs. Madocks, a daughter.

Ducheſs of Courland, a prince.

MARRIAGES.

HON. James Cauſield Browne, eldeſt ſon of viſcount Kilmaine, to the hon. miſs Cavendiſh, daughter of the right hon. ſir Henry Cavendiſh.

Sir Edward Aſtley, bart. to Mrs. Bullen.

Francis Burdett, eſq. eldeſt ſon of ſir Robert Burdett, bart. to miſs Coutts, daughter of Thomas Coutts, eſq. banker of London.

Captain Sebright, eldeſt ſon of ſir John Sebright, bart. to miſs Croftes, daughter of the late Richard Croftes, eſq. of Harling, Norfolk.

Charles Hope, eſq. to lady Charlotte Hope, ſiſter to the earl of Hopetoun.

Alexander Brodie, eſq. M. P. to miſs Wemyſs, daughter of the late hon. James Wemyſs.

Sir Gilbert Heathcote, bart. to miſs Manners, daughter of lady Louiſa Manners.

Sir Henry Coſby, to miſs Eliot, daughter of Samuel Eliot, eſq. and niece to lady Le Deſpenſer.

Hon. Henry Willoughby, ſon of lord Middleton, to miſs Jane Lawley, daughter of the late ſir Robert Lawley, bart.

The earl of Pomfret, to miſs Brown of Pall-mall.

Paul Benfield, eſq. to miſs Swinburne.

Earl of Bredalbane, to miſs Gavin, daughter of the late David Gavin, eſq. of Langton.

Hon. Henry Bromley, only ſon of lord Montfort, to miſs Eliza Watts of Iſlington.

Sir Robert Lawley, bart. to miſs Maria Deniſon, daughter of Joſeph Deniſon, eſq. banker of London.

DEATHS.

DEATHS.

LORD Gardenſtone, one of the ſenators of the college of juſtice in Scotland.

Viſcounteſs St. Laurence.

John Lee, eſq. M. P.

Sir John Hallet, bart.

Lady Anne Broughton, wife of ſir Thomas Broughton, bart.

Viſcounteſs Falmouth.

Lady of the right hon. ſir James Sanderſon, lord-mayor.

Counteſs of Hopetoun.

Dr. John Thomas, biſhop of Rocheſter.

Lady Jane Mathew, wife of general Mathew, and ſiſter of the late duke of Ancaſter.

Earl of Fingall.

Counteſs of Grandiſon.

Sir Robert Mead Wilmot, bart.

John earl of Buckinghamſhire.

Lady Anne Finch, aunt to the earl of Aylesford.

Hon. James Caulfeild, ſon of the earl of Carlemont.

James Baillie, eſq. M. P. of Ealing Grove, Middleſex.

Richard Ladbroke, eſq. of Tadworth-court, Surry.

PROMOTIONS.

DR. John Gillies—Hiſtoriographer to his majeſty in Scotland.

Patrick Bellew, eſq.—Gentleman-uſher of the privy-chamber to her majeſty.

Charles Rooke, eſq.—Gentleman-uſher daily waiter.

George N. Vincent, eſq. and Charles Harward, eſq.—Gentlemen-uſhers quarter Waiters.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

AUGUST 31.

BEnjamin Hughes, of Saliſbury-court, wine-merchant.

John Bailey, Richard Smalley, and William Smalley, of Blackburne, in Lancaſhire, bankers.

William Hutchinſon, of Burton Leonard, in Yorkſhire, tanner.

Joſeph Brookes, of Chipping Ongar, in Eſſex, linen-draper.

John Cochrane, of Hatton-ſtreet, Holborn, dealer in coal-tar.

Samuel Powell, and John Wright, of Clifton, Glouceſterſhire, coal-merchants.

Iſaac Bennett, of Walcot, in Somerſetſhire, carpenter.

Alexander Forreſter Cochrane, of Walbrook, dealer in coal-tar.

William Sumnerſet, of Holborn, linen-draper.

Edward Langley, of Exeter-ſtreet, Cheiſea, victualler.

John Meadows, of Peterborough, mercer.

Hugh Hamil, of Cateaton-ſtreet, linen-draper.

Abraham Franco, of Gower-ſtreet, Bedford-ſquare, merchant.

SEPTEMBER 3.

Robert Threlfall, and Stephen Threlfall, of Leeds in Yorkſhire, hatters.

William Johnſon, of Leeds, in Yorkſhire, cornfactor.

William Lane, of Briſtol, grocer.

John Johnſon, of Doncaſter, in Yorkſhire, hoſier.

Southall Bailey, of Worceſter, barge-owner.

John Edwards, of Mancheſter, merchant.

SEPTEMBER 7.

Thomas Edwards, of White-horſe-ſtreet, St. George, Hanover-ſquare, victualler.

Robert Slater, of Aſhurſt-lodge, in Surry, cyder-merchant.

Joſeph Perkins, of Cambridge, linen-draper.

John Price, and William Horn, of Briſtol, dealers.

Thomas Holland, of Birmingham, plater.

Thomas Howitt, and Robert Howitt, of Leeds, in Yorkſhire, linen-drapers.

Thomas Baldwin, of Bath, architect.

William Leatt, of St. Peter the Apoſtle, in the Iſle of Thanet, Kent, victualler.

John Shuffrey the younger, of Witney, in Oxfordſhire, blanket-weaver.

SEPTEMBER 10.

Thomas Hiſcocks, of Frome, in Somerſetſhire, clothier.

John Marriott, of Tabernacle-walk, Moorfields, baker.

SEPTEMBER 14.

George Pitt, of Oxford-ſtreet, haberdaſher.

James Matthews, of Leadenhall-ſtreet, tea-dealer, (copartner with John Sparks, of the ſame place, tea-dealer.)

Thomas Smith, of St. John's-ſtreet, bruſh-maker.

Thomas Martin, of Leominſter, in Herefordſhire, innkeeper.

William Illidge, of Wolverhampton, in Staffordſhire, rope-maker.

Joſeph Kent, of Norwich, linen-draper.

Eliſabeth Fuſſey, of Ely, Cambridge, widow, carrier.

SEP-

SEPTEMBER 17.

Stanley Brennard, of Oldham, Lancashire, cotton-manufacturer.

Robert Brickdale Morgan, of Birmingham, button-maker.

Robert Tanner, of Lyncombe and Widcombe, in Somersetshire, victualler.

Richard Perring, of Dartmouth, in Devonshire, shipwright.

John Viel, of Bathwick, in Somersetshire, cabinet-maker, (copartner with Matthew Viel, of Bathwick, upholsterer.)

SEPTEMBER 21.

George Burafton, of John-ftreet, Tottenham-court-road, builder.

Daniel Smith, of Thatcham, Berks, money-ſcrivener.

Edward Pritchard, of Shrewſbury, in Salop, wine-merchant.

James Thompſon, of Leadenhall-ſtreet, linen-draper.

Benjamin Long, of St. Mary-axe, and Samuel Ingold, of Jamaica-row, Bermondſey, corn-dealers.

SEPTEMBER 24.

Edward Arnold, of Leiceſter, bell-founder.

Robert Spice, of Birmingham, victualler.

John Rudge, of Bath, butcher.

Samuel Leigh, of Cranbrook, in Kent, ſadler.

William Briand, and Thomas Humphris, of Queen-ſtreet, Hammerſmith.

Zephaniah Young, and Samuel Whettall, of Croſs-lane, St. Mary at Hill, wine-merchants.

Nathaniel Hogan, of Southampton, watchmaker.

David Stevens, of Llangathen, in Caermarthenſhire, dealer.

John Sparkes, of Leadenhall-ſtreet, tea-dealer.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

NEW Annual Regiſter, for 1792, 7s. half bound.

Aday's Diſtiller's Vade Mecum, 8vo. 6s.

Denman on the Effects of Buxton Waters, 8vo. 2s. 6d.

Harrington's Chymical Eſſays, 3s. ſewed.

Kendall's (W.) Poems, 8vo. 6s.

Henry, a Tale, 2 vol. 7s.

Grayes on the Sulphureous Water at Nottington, near Weymouth, 1s. 6d.

Thunburg's Travels in Europe, Africa, and Aſia, 3 vol. 8vo. 1l. 1s.

Dramas for the Uſe of Young Ladies, 12mo. 3s.

Political Correſpondence, 8vo. 3s. 6d. ſewed.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

September 14, 1793.

By the Standard Wincheſter Quarter of Eight Buſhels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	46	0	30	0	29	9	25	2
Surry	46	10	34	5	31	0	26	2
Hertford	45	4	31	4	29	4	24	3
Bedford	46	2	36	0	——	——	25	1
Huntingdon	46	0	——	——	——	——	20	6
Northampton	46	10	29	6	32	3	21	7
Rutland	48	0	34	0	38	0	22	0
Leiceſter	52	4	——	——	38	2	24	4
Nottingham	55	10	38	8	——	——	24	7
Derby	56	4	——	——	——	——	26	10
Stafford	53	4	——	——	39	3	24	1
Salop	52	10	41	4	35	10	28	4
Hereford	49	4	41	8	34	0	26	1
Worceſter	50	6	——	——	36	4	27	2
Warwick	53	0	——	——	39	8	29	0
Wilts	42	10	28	0	29	4	25	10
Berks	45	4	42	4	32	6	24	4
Oxford	44	4	——	——	28	4	24	10
Bucks	45	2	——	——	32	8	24	7
Brecon	56	0	44	10	33	9	24	0
Montgomery	54	2	——	——	——	——	19	4
Radnor	53	7	——	——	32	0	28	8

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Eſſex	45	0	33	0	30	6	24	0
Kent	44	4	31	4	31	0	23	2
Suſſex	42	8	——	——	——	——	25	0
Suffolk	43	7	31	1	29	6	20	10
Cambridge	43	11	28	10	30	0	18	8
Norfolk	42	4	26	10	28	0	20	9
Lincoln	47	4	34	0	34	0	19	10
York	44	0	34	11	——	——	22	9
Durham	52	1	33	0	32	0	29	1
Northumberland	45	2	32	1	27	4	18	2
Cumberland	51	6	40	4	34	6	20	6
Weſtmorland	55	1	41	0	30	0	22	8
Lancaſter	52	10	——	——	38	8	24	0
Cheſter	52	3	——	——	37	2	23	2
Flint	49	8	——	——	36	0	21	4
Denbigh	52	11	——	——	35	8	20	2
Angleſea	48	0	——	——	28	0	16	0
Carnarvon	53	4	42	0	31	8	17	4
Merioneth	55	11	44	7	40	0	19	0
Cardigan	54	4	38	0	31	0	——	——
Pembroke	44	5	——	——	31	4	——	——
Carmarthen	51	10	——	——	36	0	16	0
Glamorgan	54	5	——	——	30	7	17	5
Glouceſter	48	11	——	——	32	5	17	6
Somerſet	49	8	——	——	28	7	21	8
Monmouth	51	10	——	——	32	0	——	——
Devon	50	8	——	——	24	10	17	8
Cornwall	53	2	——	——	27	1	20	3
Dorſet	45	7	——	——	30	0	22	0
Hants	43	4	——	——	29	8	23	7

Peck Loaf, 2s. 6d.

PRICES

PRICES of STOCKS, from AUGUST 29, to SEPTEMBER 27, 1793, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. conſols.	4 per C. conſols.	5 per C. conſols.	Long Ans.	Short Ans.	India Stock.	India Ans.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	Engliſh. Lot.	Tic.
29	174 ¼	ſhut.	75½a76	93 ⅛	107 ¼	22 ⅝		208		7s.pr.				9⅛dif.		
30	175		76 ⅛	93 ¼	107 ⅜	22 ½	10 ½	208 ½		7		76 ½		9 ⅛	14	0 6
31			76⅛a75⅞	93 ⅜	107 ½	22 ½		208 ½		8				9 ¼	14	0 6
2									ſhut.							
3	174 ¼		75⅞a½	93 ⅛	107 ⅛	22 ¼	10 ⅛	208 ¼						9 ⅛	14	0 6
4	ſhut.		75⅝a74¼	92 ¾	106 ¾	22	10 ⅛	206		10		76		9 ⅛	14	0 0
5	172		75a73⅞	92 ¾	106	21 ¾		206		9			74 ¼	9 ¼	13	18 0
6	172 ⅛		74½a⅞	92 ⅛	106 ¼	21 ⅞	10 ⅛	206		8	80 ⅛	75 ½		9 ⅛	13	19 0
7	172		74⅝a½	92 ¼	106 ¼	21 ¾	10	206		7		ſhut.		10	13	19 0
8	172 ¼		74⅜a⅝	92 ⅜	106 ⅛	ſhut.	10 ⅛	205 ½		9				9 ⅛	13	19 0
10	173	75 ½	74⅛a⅜	92 ⅜	106 ⅛		ſhut.	205 ½		9	80 ¼			9 ⅛		
11	173 ¼		75⅛a74¾	ſhut.	106 ¼					9				9 ⅛	13	19 0
12	173 ¼		74a73⅞		106			204 ¾		9				10 ⅛	13	18 0
13	172 ¾		73 a74¼		106 ⅛			205 ½		11	79			9 ⅛	13	18 0
14	173 ¼		74¾a75¾		106 ⅛									8 ½		
16	172 ¼		75a74⅞		106 ¼					12				8	13	18 0
17	171 ¼		74⅛a¼		106			204 ¼		15				8 ⅛	13	18 6
18	171 ⅛		74¼a73¾		105 ⅞					15				9	13	18 6
19	172		73⅞a74½		106			203 ½		17				9 ⅛	13	19 6
20	172		74⅛a½		106			203 ½		16				9 ¼	14	1 0
21																
23																
24	171 ¾		74⅛a¾		106			203 ½		15		75		9	14	2 6
25			74⅛a⅜		106 ¼			203 ¾		14				9 ⅛	14	3 6
26	171 ½		74½a⅝		106 ⅜			203		11					14	4 0
27			74½a¾		106 ⅛					10				9 ⅛	14	6 0

☞ In the 3 per Cent. conſols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a ſixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

View of a Bridge over the Lutschinen, in Swisserland.

An Account of the GLACIERS, *or* FIELDS *of* ICE, *in the* Alps: *With a Perſpective View of the ſingular Bridge, over the River* Lutſchinen, *in* Swiſſerland.

NO ſubject in natural hiſtory can be more curious than the origin of the Glaciers of the Alps. They extend into fields of corn and paſture, and lie, without being melted, in a ſituation, where the ſun is ſufficient to bring the earth to maturity: for it is almoſt literally true, that with one hand a perſon may touch ice, and with the other ripe corn. 'If any one,' ſays Mr. Coxe, 'could be conveyed to ſuch an elevation as to embrace at one view the Alps of Swiſſerland, Savoy, and Dauphiny, he would behold a vaſt chain of mountains, interſected by numerous vallies, and compoſed of many parallel chains, the higheſt occupying the centre, and the others gradually diminiſhing in proportion to their diſtance from that centre.

The moſt elevated, or central chain, would appear briſtled with pointed rocks, and covered, even in ſummer, with ice and ſnow, in all parts that are not abſolutely perpendicular. On each ſide of this chain he would diſcover deep vallies clothed with verdure, peopled with numerous villages, and watered by many rivers. In conſidering theſe objects with greater attention, he would remark, that the central chain is compoſed of elevated peaks and diverging ridges, whoſe ſummits are overſpread with ſnow; that the declivities of the peaks and ridges, excepting thoſe parts that are extremely ſteep, are covered with ſnow and ice; and that the intermediate depths and ſpaces between them are filled with immenſe fields of ice, terminating in thoſe cultivated vallies which border the great chain.

The branches moſt contiguous to the central chain would preſent the ſame phenomena, only in a leſſer degree. At greater diſtances no ice would be obſerved, and ſcarcely any ſnow, but upon ſome of the moſt elevated ſummits; and the mountains diminiſhing in height and ruggedneſs, would appear covered with herbage, and gradually ſink into hills and plains.

In this general ſurvey, the glaciers may be divided into two ſorts; the firſt occupying the deep vallies ſituated in the boſom of the Alps, and termed by the natives Valley of Ice, which may be diſtinguiſhed by the name of Lower Glaciers; the ſecond, which clothe the ſummits and ſides of the mountains, may be called Upper Glaciers.

1. The Lower Glaciers are by far the moſt conſiderable in extent and depth. Some ſtretch ſeveral leagues in length; that of des Bois, in particular, is more than fifteen miles long, and above three in its greateſt breadth. The Lower Glaciers do not, as is generally imagined, communicate with each other; and but few of them are parallel to the central chain: they moſtly ſtretch in a tranſverſe direction, are bordered at the higher extremity by inacceſſible rocks, and on the other extend into the cultivated valiies. The thickneſs of the ice varies in different parts. M. de Sauſſure found its general depth in the glacier des Bois from eighty to a hundred feet; but queſtions not the information of thoſe who aſſert, that in ſome places its thickneſs exceeds even ſix hundred feet.

Theſe immenſe fields of ice uſually reſt on an inclined plane: being puſhed forward by the preſſure of their own weight, and but weakly ſupported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are interſected by large tranſverſe chaſms; and preſent the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantaſtic ſhapes, obſerved at all heights and in all ſituations, wherever the declivity exceeds thirty or forty degrees.

But in thoſe parts, where the plane on which they reſt is horizontal, or

only gently inclined, the ſurface of the ice is nearly uniform; the chaſms are but few and narrow; and the traveller croſſes on foot, without much difficulty.

The ſurface of the ice is not ſo ſlippery as that of frozen ponds or rivers: it is rough and granulated, and is only dangerous to the paſſenger in ſteep deſcents. It is not tranſparent, is extremely porous and full of ſmall bubbles, which ſeldom exceed the ſize of a pea, and conſequently is not ſo compact as common ice: its perfect reſemblance to the congelation of ſnow impregnated with water, in its opacity, roughneſs, and in the number and ſmallneſs of the air-bubbles, led M. de Sauſſure to conceive the following ſimple and natural theory on the formation of the glaciers.

An immenſe quantity of ſnow is continually accumulating in the elevated vallies which are incloſed within the Alps, as well from that which falls from the clouds during nine months in the year, as from the maſſes which are inceſſantly rolling from the ſteep ſides of the circumjacent mountains. Part of this ſnow, which is not diſſolved during ſummer, impregnated with rain and ſnow-water, is frozen during winter, and forms that opaque and porous ice of which the Lower Glaciers are compoſed.

2. The Upper Glaciers may be ſubdivided into thoſe which cover the ſummits, and thoſe which extend along the ſides of the Alps.

Thoſe which cover the ſummits of the Alps, owe their origin to the ſnow that falls at all ſeaſons of the year, and which remains nearly in its original ſtate, being congealed into a hard ſubſtance, and not converted into ice. For although, according to the opinion of ſome philoſophers, the ſummit of Mont Blanc, and of other elevated mountains, is, from the gliſtening of the ſurface, ſuppoſed to be covered with pure ice; yet it appears, both from theory and experience, that it is not ice but ſnow. For, in ſo elevated and cold a region, there cannot be melted a quantity of ſnow ſufficient to impregnate with water the whole maſs, which remains undiſſolved. Experience alſo juſtifies this reaſoning. M. de Sauſſure found the top of Mont Blanc only encruſted with ice, which, though of a firm conſiſtence, was yet penetrable with a ſtick; and on the declivities of the ſummit he diſcovered, beneath the ſurface, a ſoft ſnow without coherence.

The ſubſtance which clothes the ſides of the Alps is neither pure ſnow like that of the ſummits, nor ice which forms the Lower Glaciers, but is an aſſemblage of both. It contains leſs ſnow than the ſummits, becauſe the ſummer heat has more power to diſſolve it, and becauſe the liquefied ſnow deſcending from above, the maſs is penetrated with a larger quantity of water. It contains more ſnow than the Lower Glaciers, becauſe the diſſolution of the ſnow is comparatively leſſer. Hence the ice is even more porous, opaque, and leſs compact than the ice of the Lower Glaciers; and is of ſo doubtful a texture as renders it, in many parts, difficult to decide, whether it may be called ice or frozen ſnow.

In a word, there is a regular gradation from the ſnow on the ſummits to the ice of the Lower Glaciers, formed by the intermediate mixture of ſnow and ice, which becomes more compact and leſs porous in proportion as it approaches the Lower Glaciers, until it unites and aſſimilates with them. And it is evident, that the greater or leſſer degree of denſity is derived from the greater or leſſer quantity of water, with which the maſs is impregnated.'

Such are the ſcenes which Savoy and Swiſſerland exhibit among their mountainous tracts; and among theſe curious phænomena of nature are many picturesque objects, which cannot fail to attract the notice of the aſtoniſhed traveller. Such, for inſtance, is the dangerous bridge over

the river Lutſchinen, in the bailliage of Interlacken, and canton of Berne, in Swiſſerland. This river is formed by the junction of two ſtreams: the one, called the Weiſs Lutſchinen, flowing through the valley of Lauterbrunnen; and the other called the Schwartz Lutſchinen, which comes from the valley of Grindelwalde. Having left the fertile plains of Giſteig, and paſſed the village of Wilderſwyl, the breadth of the valley leſſens, and continues to grow ſo narrow, that the ſtream of the Lutſchinen can hardly force a paſſage. In the rainy ſeaſon, the river forms a torrent, which ruſhes impetuouſly through the great maſſes of rock that obſtruct its courſe, and, with inconceivable violence, forces from their beds the moſt enormous fragments. The road to Twey-Lutſchinen and Lauterbrunnen is over this river, by a kind of bridge, which, to a ſtranger to the country, exhibits a very terrific appearance, and of which the plate annexed is a picturesque repreſentation. Suſpended over a roaring torrent, and fixed againſt the ſides of rocks that are almoſt in a leaning poſition, it exhibits the idea of a double danger. A huge vertical ſtone, raiſed in the middle of the river, ſupports ſome thick planks, ſo badly joined as to be neither ſteady nor ſolid; and theſe form a wretched inſecure bridge, over which the country people daily paſs, with a firm ſtep and undaunted eye; a paſſage, which the traveller, unaccuſtomed to ſuch ſtrange communications, would tremble to attempt. From this place the river flows till it falls into the Lake of Brientz.

EUTROPUS, *or the* FICKLE MAN: *A Biographical Sketch.*

EUTROPUS was the ſon of a gentleman of moderate fortune, whoſe opinion was that children ſhould be very early left to follow the guidance of their own counſels: he conſidered all reſtraint on their inclinations as a ſlavery, which no parent had a right to impoſe, and truſted implicitly in what he called the innate good ſenſe, or wiſdom of his children. Agreeably to ſuch ſentiments, Eutropus received very little controul, and ſcarcely any inſtruction. Books, indeed, he had, and he read them. What he poſſeſſed of good or evil was all his own. He was deſtined to be an example of one who is ſelf-taught in all things.

Some people, the Spectator ſays, are forever complaining of the ſhortneſs of life, and yet are perpetually hurrying over the parts of it, to attain at certain little ſettlements, or imaginary points of reſt, which are diſperſed up and down in it. Eutropus, as ſoon as he could be ſaid to think for himſelf (and he was very early left to do ſo) proved that he was one of thoſe people to whom life ever appears ſhort, becauſe their capacious minds are ever projecting ſchemes of infinite magnitude, and who nevertheleſs are ever changing their plans, in hopes to hit upon ſome ſcheme, which ſhall relieve them from all future trouble.

Eutropus, how originally prompted we know not, gave an early preference to the ſtudy of divinity. Perhaps he was enraptured with the ideas of arriving at the higheſt dignities of the church, and conceived that the ſummit of human happineſs was a mitre. He applied, therefore, to his college ſtudies with ſuch an indefatigable attention as might anticipate the common progreſs of promotion, and he was ſoon diſtinguiſhed, by his ſuperior abilities, from the common maſs of ſtudents. It was requiſite to paſs ſome years in theſe ſtudies, and they were not miſapplied. When completed, he looked round for a mitre, and obtained—a curacy. He had not enjoyed this long before he diſcovered the vaſt ſpace which lay

between it and a biſhopric. He enquired into the hiſtory of promotions, and ſaw them ſurrounded with difficulties which he had no means to ſurmount. He ſaw ſeveral biſhops inſtalled, and on looking in their faces, he ſaw indiſputable proofs of old age. Eutropus began to think that age and infirmity were poorly compenſated for by the beſt ſituations, and dreaded to conſign himſelf to a long period of hopes and expectations, which, if fulfilled and gratified at all, would probably be gratified when he was paſt enjoyment. He now looked round for another profeſſion, and fixed on medicine.

He had obſerved, or had been told, of the very rapid riſe of young practitioners of ability to great practice, and conſequently to great wealth and fame, and panted to enjoy that reſpect which even crowned heads would pay to their phyſicians, when they wanted that aid which kingdoms could not purchaſe. Three or four years of conſtant ſtudy, enabled him to obtain the requiſite licences for practice, and he ſat down in a faſhionable corner of the town, confident that he had every requiſite to carry all before him. But alas! Eutropus was a ſtranger; he had formed no connexions; he knew none of the arts of riſing; his great ſoul diſdained to beg for an hoſpital; and he abhorred the common intrigues of apothecaries and nurſes. An occaſional patient ſent for him, but his name imparted no confidence, and his ſucceſs was conſidered as very ſingular, rather than very encouraging. His natural impatience now returned, and he foreſaw, that according to his preſent ſlow progreſs, he might probably creep into tolerable practice by the time he had ſurvived his contemporaries and ſeniors, and was himſelf—ready to follow them.

While in this purſuit, he filled up his vacant hours, and diverted the pain of ſuſpence, by liſtening to the proceedings of the courts of law. He was charmed with the eloquence of the bar, and learned, with no ſmall degree of ſurpriſe, that many men, not older than himſelf, were *in the receipt* (as the phraſe is) of ſeveral thouſands a year. He was told that ſome of them would earn two or three hundred pounds by one ſpeech only; and he looked up to the bench with an eye of reſpect, which he conſidered as due to the learning and dignity of the judge. Diſguſted with phyſic, he determined to follow the law, and being qualified by his reſidence at the univerſity, he entered at the Temple, and dived into the unfathomable reſearches of common and ſtatute law. Being called to the bar in due proceſs of time, he ſoon had an opportunity to diſplay his talents; but that which might have pleaſed in the pulpit, and conſoled on the bed of ſickneſs, was here loſt. Eutropus had ſo little confidence in himſelf that he heſitated, and ſtammered, perplexed his argument, and was totally eclipſed by the brilliant and *habitual* eloquence of his brethren. To be diſconcerted by a firſt attempt would, however, have been cowardice. He had heard of many, now eminent in their profeſſion, who were long the *briefleſs* followers of the circuit, and he waited for ſome more favourable opportunity. Years rolled on, and Eutropus was arrived at the middle age of man, when he diſcovered that even the ſilk gown was far remote, and the judge's hat ſeemed at an infinite diſtance. Eutropus could in no ſituation of life practiſe ſiniſter arts, and ever entertained a profound contempt for venality and proſtitution. Some hereditary fortune remained, and he determined to embark in trade.

Trade he conſidered as a thing which requires nothing but induſtry and integrity to ſet it in motion, and to keep it going. But he was ignorant of its principles, and therefore found it neceſſary to connect himſelf in partnerſhip in ſome houſe where he might *learn*, and *profit* at the ſame time. A favourable opportunity preſented

ſented itſelf, and matters for a time went on ſo proſperouſly, that Eutropus deſpiſed thoſe who blamed him for his former fickleneſs. He maintained that he had not miſpent the former part of his life. He had learned nothing but what would be of ſervice to him. His former ſtudies would ſtill be a ſource of pleaſure and advantage. His divinity would preſerve his morals; his knowledge of medicine would enable him to repel the firſt attacks of diſeaſe; and his law would enſure him from the frauds and circumvention of the cunning and unprincipled. After ſome years, however, it entered into the mind of Eutropus that he was ſtill loſing time; he could not ſee the proſpect of wealth but at a great diſtance, and although he beheld hundreds of his brethren enjoying the trranquil pleaſures of a retired life, he deſpaired of being ever able to attain ſo great a happineſs, unleſs perhaps in extreme old age, when he would be unfit to enjoy it with a true zeſt. What contributed, likewiſe, to make him weary of his preſent ſituation was the extreme buſtle with which it was accompanied, and in this reſpect it differed ſo much from his former purſuits, that he began to long for the return of thoſe days when his time was his own, and when he could devote a conſiderable portion of it to intellectual culture, after which he always had a hankering, and from which he was now almoſt entirely precluded. In ſhort, he diſpoſed of his ſhare in this buſineſs, and retired with a ſum which he thought quite ſufficient for his intended purpoſe. This was to purchaſe a country-houſe and farm, and bid a final adieu to London, and all its buſtling cares, and tumultuous pleaſures. In a country where property fluctuates ſo rapidly as it does in England, Eutropus could not be kept waiting very long for what he wanted. Behold him now at the age of forty-five, a country gentleman, and farmer, on the banks of the Severn.

To any man but Eutropus, this ſituation would have been moſt delightful. His farm conſiſted of nearly four hundred acres of rich corn and graſs land; his houſe was charmingly ſituated on the declivity of a hill, which commanded a grand and extenſive proſpect; the Severn irrigated part of his farm, and he enriched the ſoil by adopting ſeveral improvements which the indolence or obſtinacy of his predeceſſor had rejected. But ſomething was yet wrong. Familiarity deſtroyed half of thoſe beauties, which Eutropus had been at firſt charmed with, and which novelty had probably heightened. Eutropus could read and ſtudy indeed, but his mind became confuſed for want of a channel of communication. His neighbours were hoſpitable, friendly, attentive, and of ſocial diſpoſitions, but this was all loſt upon Eutropus; their hoſpitality was exceſſive; their friendſhip, though he could not diſdain, yet he thought he did not want it; their attentions often diſturbed; and in their ſociety, he was compelled to take part in converſations which he did not underſtand. He felt ſomething of a fancied ſuperiority, and he longed for that ſociety of *literati* which London alone can ſupply, but which his engagements when in that city, generally prevented him from enjoying. To a man like Eutropus very little time was neceſſary to carry into execution a new plan, however haſtily conceived, and he was ſeated in a houſe in Lincoln's-inn-fields, in leſs than two years after he had bid perpetual adieu to London.

He now reſolved to divide his time in ſuch a manner, as that every hour ſhould have its ſtated employment or amuſement; but he did not conſider that in London, more than in any other place in the kingdom, a man is very little maſter of his own time. Viſits and viſitors began to increaſe; Eutropus being conſidered as a man who had no buſineſs to mind, was conſequently conſidered as one who could

could plead no excuſe from an agreeable engagement, or a day's or week's excurſion. He ſoon found this very irkſome, and every day was uſhered in with a formal reſolution, the breaking of which every night witneſſed. Eutropus had firmneſs in nothing; he could not ſay *no* either to himſelf, or to any other perſon; and after a years reſidence in the metropolis, he had the painful recollection that it had been paſſed in idleneſs. He could remember no part of it with ſatisfaction; but as he had experienced that ſolitude was as unfit for his diſpoſition, as his preſent hurry of life, he was puzzled how to act. It occured to him that if he could hit upon a *medium* ſtate between ſolitude and ſociety, he would find that happineſs after which he had been running, and running in vain. After much thinking on this ſubject, he fancied that Bath, the miniature of London, was the place to ſuit him. In Bath, he thought, he ſhould find as much ſociety as he wanted, and ſociety of much the ſame kind he had been uſed to; and at the ſame time, he could be there more at his own command than in London.

To Bath he went. For a time every thing pleaſed him; for novelty was his delight; but novelty is periſhable. The ſociety of Bath was not preciſely what he wanted. It was compoſed of viſitors, one half of whom reſorted thither for pleaſure, and the other half for health. With the former he could not aſſociate, for he abhorred gaming; and the latter could not be viewed without that ſympathy which is painful. He became melancholy at the ſight of ſo many objects of diſtreſs; and had not been long at Bath, before he imbibed prejudices againſt it, as ſtrong as thoſe which Smollett has recorded with ſo much pleaſantry in the character of Matthew Bramble. From Bath, therefore, Eutropus returned once more to London, where he lingered out, for many years, an exiſtence that created no envy.

From the caſe of Eutropus, we may learn, that it is ridiculous to expect more of life than life can afford. One purſuit is ſufficient for the longeſt liver. Irreſolution is the bane of every purſuit, and impatience to arrive at ſome imaginary haven is one of the worſt whims that can enter into the head of man. A great deal of time, and unneceſſary conſideration, are thrown away in the choice of a profeſſion. There is ſcarcely any profeſſion in which a man may not excel, if he chooſes, that is, if he poſſeſs ſufficient firmneſs of mind, if he expects not too much, and if he does not depart from the ſlow but ſure progreſs of buſineſs, to launch into ſome daring ſpeculation which, he may ſuppoſe, will render him independent at once. There are ſome things which are moſt pernicious to men in any buſineſs. The love of riches, the envy of our cotemporaries, and an impatience to *retire*, as it is called, have been the ruin of thouſands. By theſe, they have been precipitated into acts, not merely abſurd, but diſhoneſt, and the latter part of their life has often been the puniſhment of the former part of it. But even without theſe vices, fickleneſs and irreſolution render every attempt abortive, and the beſt of men, ridiculous; unhappy in themſelves, and deſpiſed by others. Thoſe who complain that life is ſhort, would do well to remember that the ſhorteſt life may be rendered uſeful, and that for the enjoyment of health and activity, we are accountable for every day; a conſideration that will not fail to have its weight with thoſe who know that 'thoſe evil days will draw nigh in which we ſhall ſay we have no pleaſure in them.'

Or-

OBSERVATIONS *on the* TRIAL *and* EXECUTION *of the late unfortunate* LOUIS XVI. *and on the ſubſequent Situation of the* QUEEN *and* ROYAL FAMILY *in the* Temple.

Theſe intereſting Obſervations are extracted from 'Letters from France, Vol. III. *and* IV.' *The Writer's Name, for particular Reaſons, is not prefixed; but there are not wanting ſome internal Characteriſtics, particularly, the beautiful Poetical Compariſons, to ſatisfy the Mind of moſt of our Readers, without much Danger of Miſtake.*

THE faction of the anarchiſts deſired that the French king ſhould be put to death without the tedious forms of a trial. This opinion, however, was confined to the ſummit of the Mountain, that elevated region, where, aloof from all the ordinary feelings of our nature, no one is diverted from his purpoſe by the weakneſs of humanity, or the compunction of remorſe; where urbanity is conſidered as an ariſtocratical infringement of the great principles, and mercy as the crime of high treaſon.

The trial of the king was decreed by the national convention, and the 11th of December was fixed upon for that purpoſe. Lewis XVI had ſupported his long impriſonment with fortitude; and, when he heard that the day for his trial was fixed, he ſaid with great calmneſs, 'Well! let them guillotine me if they will; I am prepared.'

A ſhort time after the taking of the Baſtile, the king was obſerved reading the hiſtory of Charles I. 'Why, ſire,' ſaid an attendant, 'do you read that hiſtory? it will make you melancholy.' 'I feel an impreſſion on my mind, that one day I ſhall end like him.' It appears that the French queen has alſo choſen a model for her behaviour, in the laſt ſcene of life, from the Engliſh annals; for ſince her impriſonment ſhe has been employed in reading the hiſtory of Mary queen of Scots.

When the municipal officers went to the Temple, and took from the royal priſoners their pocket-knives, ſciſſars, razors, &c. the king, while ſearching his pockets, ſaid, 'They have nothing to fear from me.' The queen exclaimed in a ſcornful tone, 'You ought to take our needles too; for they can prick very ſharply.'

Until the trial began, the king was allowed to dine and ſup with his family. After eating a good dinner he uſually played two or three games at piquet with the queen; and, when they had finiſhed, the municipal officer upon guard in the apartment, without ſpeaking, made a movement toward the door, which the queen underſtood, and was obliged to riſe immediately, and leave the room.

Lewis XVI behaved at the bar of the national convention with calmneſs, and even dignity. He remembered that he had been a king; and he proved that he had not that imbecility of mind which has been generally imputed to him. Philoſophy, ſpeaking the words of truth and ſoberneſs, may tell us, that kings, like other men, ought to be made accountable for their actions; but ſhe will alſo admit, that their faults have ſtronger claims to compaſſion than thoſe of other men—educated, as they uſually are, in deluſion and error. Perhaps it is not very extraordinary, that Lewis XVI, who had been taught from his earlieſt infancy 'the enormous faith of thouſands made for one,' and who had never heard of any privileges but his own, recollecting what he was 'ſeventeen years ago,' conſidered ſlavery as the natural inheritance of his ſubjects, and the rights of man as but another term for treaſon. It muſt alſo be admitted, that, when

a king

a king undergoes the ſame puniſhment as another man, he is in truth puniſhed more. The national convention, if they determine to puniſh the dethroned monarch, will condemn him to die: but do they, who are going to legiſlate for a mighty empire, know ſo little of the human heart, as not to know that to him the humiliation he already ſuffers is worſe than death? After having obliged him to appear before them, all farther puniſhment is ſuperfluous. When led through the ſtreets of Paris as a priſoner, can he forget how often he has paſſed through thoſe ſtreets amid the acclamations of the ſubject multitude? and, when condemned to ſtand at the bar of their aſſembly, till the preſident gives him leave to ſit down, does not his remembrance—his agonized remembrance—glance back on thoſe days, when to be ſeated in his preſence was the appropriated privilege to which only a few could aſpire?

Princes are placed in a ſort of artificial condition: they live at a ſullen diſtance from the deareſt enjoyments of life, and are alſo in general exempted from its calamities. The poet, therefore, when he wiſhes to rouſe our paſſions, paints ſome ſtriking viciſſitude of power and greatneſs. The regular murmurs of a gentle ſtream do not diſturb the penſive meditation of the wanderer, who muſes on its banks—it is the headlong torrent, ruſhing from its dizzy height over the fragments of the broken cliff, that ſeizes our aſtoniſhed attention.

It was obſerved by ſome perſons who were placed near the French king, when he appeared at the bar of the convention, that he received the firſt papers which were ſhewn to him with haughty impatience, almoſt ſnatching them from the hand of the deputy by whom they were preſented, and who, indeed, performed that office in a manner which did little honour to his delicacy, his feelings, or his republicaniſm; ſince he who could forget the reſpect due to misfortune—He who could behave to Lewis XVI, when a priſoner at the bar of the convention, as if he had been leſs than a man, would, probably, at the court of Verſailles, have behaved to him as if he had been more. The king, after having recogniſed his own hand-writing, in the ſignature of thoſe papers which were firſt given him to examine, was obſerved to receive thoſe which were ſhewn to him afterward with a ſort of ſubmiſſive gentleneſs, which marked the effect produced upon his mind by the appearance of thoſe fatal teſtimonies—thoſe teſtimonies of his having joined the league of deſpots, in their impotent cruſade againſt the liberty and happineſs of his people—thoſe teſtimonies, that he had not only endeavoured to ſubvert that conſtitution which he had ſworn to maintain, by inviting the armies of Pruſſia and of Auſtria to invade the French territory; but had alſo ſought to undermine the ſpreading principles of liberty, by a ſyſtem of corruption which was meant to graſp the whole empire, and included an infinite range of objects, from the moſt important to the moſt minute—from the leading orators of the national aſſembly to the ballad-ſingers of the ſtreets—from the reports of committees to hand-bills and placards. Hiſtory will, indeed, condemn Lewis XVI. The evidence of his guilt is clear; and the hiſtorian will fulfil his duty in paſſing ſentence upon his memory; for the hiſtorian has not, like the judge, the prerogative to pardon. But Lewis XVI will not ſtand alone at the bar of poſterity. His judges alſo muſt appear at that tribunal: on them, alſo, the hiſtorian will paſs ſentence. He will behold the ſame men acting at once as accuſers, party, and judge; he will behold the unfortunate monarch deprived, not only of his inviolability as a king, but of his rights as a citizen; and perhaps the irrevocable decree of poſterity may reverſe that of the national convention.

The

The detail of the interrogation which the French king underwent at the bar of the nationaal convention is too well known to need repetition.—He was conducted back to the Temple about ſix in the evening: the night was dark; but the town was illuminated; and thoſe objects which appeared only half formed, and were ſeen indiſtinctly, imagination finiſhed and filled up, as beſt ſuited the gloomy impreſſions of the moment. By the way, ſince the 2d of September, when the whole town was lighted up for ſecurity, an illumination at Paris appears no gaudy pageant, which beams the ſymbol of public feſtivity; but is conſidered as the harbinger of danger—the ſignal of alarm—the toſſin of night. A conſiderable number of horſe, as well as foot-guards, formed the eſcort of the king; and the trampling of the horſes' feet—the hoarſe ſounds of the collected multitude—the beating of drums—the frequent report of fire-arms—all conſpired to excite the moſt ſolemn emotions. The long page of human hiſtory ruſhed upon the mind—age after age aroſe to memory, in ſad ſucceſſion, like the line of Banquo; and each ſeemed diſfigured by crimes or darkened by calamity. The paſt was clouded with horror—a great experiment was about to be made for the future; but it was impoſſible to reflect, without trembling anxiety, that the ſtake was human happineſs, and that the iſſue was doubtful, while all that could be calculated with certainty was, that millions muſt periſh in the trial. It is aſſerted that the philoſophers of France produced the revolution; I believe this to be an error. They, indeed, have diſſeminated the principles which form the baſis of the new fabric of French government; but the ancient ſyſtem was overthrown, not becauſe it was unphiloſophical, but becauſe it could be upheld no longer. The revolution was the effect of imperious neceſſity: for, whatever permanent good may reſult from a change of government, the temporary evil is ſo certain, that every age is diſpoſed to leave that work to a ſucceeding generation. The inſtinct of the people teaches them, that in framing a new government they can only hope, like Moſes, to ſee the promiſed land, but not to enter it. They may plant the ſeeds of general proſperity, ſown with toil and trouble, and bathed in blood; but the blooming vegetation and the golden fruit belong to another race of men.

The defence of Lewis XVI, which was made by his counſel on the 26th of December, though it failed to prove his innocence, at leaſt intereſted the humane part of the audience in behalf of his misfortunes: and ſuch of that audience as reflected, that he who now ſtood an arraigned criminal at the bar of the convention, had, four years ago, the deſtiny of twenty-five millions of people at the diſpoſal of his will, felt that, whatever were his ſins againſt the nation, he was already puniſhed enough.

The diſcuſſion upon the king's defence was continued for many ſucceſſive days in the national convention, which became agitated by the moſt violent commotions. The faction of the Mountain repeatedly interrupted the deliberations on this ſubject by ſcenes of tumult and diſorder hitherto unknown, even in that turbulent aſſembly. It was at that time believed, that a great majority of the national convention deſired, after paſſing ſentence on the king, to appeal to the primary aſſemblies of the people. The Mountain determined to oppoſe this meaſure by every effort in their power. Things appeared to be again haſtening to ſome great criſis; both parties went armed to the convention; a ſecond maſſacre was expected, which, it was aſſerted, would include not only the royal family, but all thoſe members of the convention who ſhould give their votes in the king's favour. The party of Gironde took meaſures for defence: meetings for this purpoſe were held in the dead of night with ſome of the Federés, of whom

twelve thouſand had reached Paris. Troops were daily arriving from the departments; and the moment ſeemed faſt approaching when the two conflicting parties were to meaſure their ſtrength. Nor could any ſenſation be more replete with horror than that which this fearful expectation excited. Imagination already beheld, like Macbeth, aërial daggers, and anticipated a ſort of dark unknown danger, to which it could ſet no limits; ſince the wild ſpirit of popular fury, when ſet looſe, might paſs the bounds preſcribed by the edicts of its abettors, as the ocean flood ſometimes by an irreſiſtible inundation throws down the feeble dykes which would arreſt its progreſs.

At this time a commotion happened at one of the theatres, which, though not material in itſelf, ſerved to mark the temper of the contending parties. A piece had lately been produced at that theatre, entitled, 'L'Ami des Loix,' which, it was ſaid, was written before the 10th of Auguſt, enforcing the duty of obedience to the order of things then exiſting, and drawing a portrait of the patriots, as if they were lovers of anarchy. It happened whimſically enough, that this caricature of patriotiſm proved a faithful likeneſs of Roberſpierre, Marat, &c. and it alſo happened, that that love of order, and ſubmiſſion to the laws then exiſting, which, while the conduct of the court made another revolution neceſſary, would have been conſidered as treaſon to the cauſe of liberty in this country, was now preached by every orthodox republican. Order and laws, however, being entirely ſubverſive of Maratiſm, this piece had excited violent indignation in that faction. The Jacobins and the municipality of Paris formed a league againſt it; and the latter ſovereign power ſent an order to the theatre, forbidding the performance. The people, in the mean time, aſſembled in conſiderable numbers round the theatre, and inſiſted that the play ſhould be performed; while the author of the piece preſented himſelf at the bar of the convention, and related what was paſſing at the theatre.—The convention paſſed to the order of the day, declaring as their reaſon for ſo doing, that the municipality had no right to controul the repreſentation. Santerre, commander in chief of the Pariſian national guard, repaired to the theatre, in order to enforce ſubmiſſion to the municipality. This general had remained totally inactive on the 2d of September, when called upon by Petion to prevent the maſſacres; but, whatever reluctance Santerre might feel to check aſſaſſination and murder, he thought it was highly neceſſary to prevent the alarming progreſs of order and law; and for that purpoſe he haſtened, ſurrounded by ſoldiers with their ſabres drawn, to prevent the repreſentation of the piece. But the commandant of the Fedérés, who had alſo marched his troops to the field of action, told Santerre, that, if he attempted to interrupt the performance, the Fedérés would draw up their cannon before the theatre, and reduce it to aſhes. Santerre hung his head, lamented the decline of municipal deſpotiſm, and retired. The piece was acted amid the loudeſt acclamations.

The next day the commune of Paris took its revenge of theſe friends of law, by ordering all the public places to be ſhut up for a week: this order was denounced and diſcuſſed in the national convention. That aſſembly, wearied, perhaps aſhamed, of its paſt forbearance toward the commune, which on all occaſions acts as if it had ſucceeded by right of inheritance to the ancient power of the houſe of Bourbon, determined to throw the police of the city into the hands of the executive council during the king's trial; and the executive council inſtantly repealed the order of the commune.

The day after the commotion at the theatre, the Marſeillois, and the other Fedérés who were then at Paris, appeared at the bar of the national convention;

vention; and the Marſeillois, in the name of the eighty-four departments, preſented an addreſs, which breathed forth the moſt ardent patriotiſm, the moſt profound ſubmiſſion to the laws, and the moſt inflexible hatred of anarchy. If the liberty of France, after all the convulſions it ſuſtains, ſhall at length be firmly eſtabliſhed, the Marſeillois will have a right to claim immortal pre-eminence among the ſons of freedom. Thoſe children of the ſon, whoſe ardent ſouls glow with the pureſt fires of patriotiſm; and who have given their country examples of that heroic valour, which the ſacred love of freedom can alone inſpire, have ſhewn that, while they beſt defend its cauſe, they alſo beſt underſtand its principles. They have ſaid to their enthuſiaſtic zeal, 'Thus far thou ſhalt go, and no farther;' nor have they ſullied their laurels by one act of diſobedience to the laws.

When the ſanguinary commune of Paris, immediately after the maſſacres of September, diſpatched circular letters to all the departments, ſpreading over the kingdom their edicts of death; or, to uſe their own language, ordering the municipal officers to clear the priſons of ariſtocrats; the Marſeillois haſtened to the priſons of their city, but not, like the avenging fiends who encompaſſed the abbey of St. Germains, to ſlaughter unreſiſting victims. The Marſeillois came like miniſtering angels of mercy, to inſpire the trembling wretch with fortitude—to cheer the drooping ſpirit—to ſuſtain the failing heart—to declare that every priſoner was under the protection of the law; and, if it were neceſſary, ſhould by them be defended from violence. The generous Marſeillois, with the noble courage of the lion, diſdained to wound a proſtrate enemy, and left to the commune of Paris to practiſe the ſullen rapacity of the vulture.

When the Federés appeared at the bar of the convention, they demanded permiſſion to guard the aſſembly in conjunction with the national guard of Paris. 'If it is an honour,' ſaid they, 'we have an equal right with the Pariſians to partake it—if there is danger, we demand our ſhare.'—'If the men of the 2d of September dare again appear, it is with the men of the 10th of Auguſt that they will have to engage—it will be the cartel of virtue and of vice.' This addreſs appeared to electrify the whole aſſembly. It was inſtantly, almoſt unanimouſly decreed that the Federés ſhould, together with the Pariſians, guard the convention; nor did the Mountain dare to oppoſe the decree, but remained in a ſort of palſied ſtupefaction.

On the 14th of January the king's trial, which had been ſuſpended for a week, was reſumed, and a few days after the fate of the unhappy monarch was decided. The attention of all Europe was fixed in anxious ſuſpenſe on the iſſue of this important trial; and the ſituation of Lewis XVI excited univerſal ſympathy. But at Paris it caſt a peculiar horror—a ſort of local gloom over the whole city; it ſeemed as if the national convention had choſen the very means moſt proper to re-kindle the dying flame of loyalty. We remembered that the king had betrayed his people, till, by the rigour of their reſentment, they made us loſe the ſenſe of his guilt in the greatneſs of his calamities. They wiſhed us to feel indignation at his offence, and they compelled us to weep for his misfortunes. They called on our abhorrence of the ungenerous uſe he had made of the power with which he was entruſted, and we ſaw how little magnanimous was the uſe which they made of theirs. Their deciſion ſeemed at once ſo cruel and ſo impolitic, that it is not ſurpriſing if, inſtead of appearing to foreign nations in the light of a painful ſacrifice made to public ſecurity, it bore the aſpect of public ſecurity ſacrificed to inhumanity and vengeance. It were, however, an error to believe, either that Lewis XVI fell the victim of that barbarous thirſt for his

blood diſplayed by the chiefs of the Mountain, or that he was devoted to death by the puſillanimity of thoſe who were influenced by conſiderations of their own perſonal ſafety. No; while we admire the heroic courage of ſuch as, in defiance of the popular outcry, pleaded with pathetic eloquence the cauſe of mercy; while we love the humanity of Briſſot, the philoſophy of Condorcet, we muſt admit, that among thoſe who voted for the death of Lewis XVI are found men equally incapable of being actuated by fear or by vengeance; men, who, conſidering the king's death as eſſential to the ſecurity of the republic, pronounced the fatal ſentence in the bitterneſs of their ſouls, and as the performance of a cruel duty which their country imperiouſly required.

The propoſition of an appeal to the departments was rejected, becauſe it was apprehended, that ſuch an appeal might lead to civil war. The primary aſſemblies muſt have been called together: the ariſtocrats and the demagogues would alike have endeavoured to influence theſe aſſemblies by the force of intrigue and corruption; and the minds of the people would have been ſolely occupied by this affair, at the moment when it was neceſſary to prepare for the approaching formidable campaign. Theſe were the evils which were dreaded from an appeal to the people, while all the good which could have reſulted from this meaſure would have been that of proving to the world, that, in whatever abhorrence the death of the French king may be held by Europe, or by poſterity, this act of ſeverity was demanded by the voice of the whole French nation. It was feared, that, if Lewis XVI were detained in captivity, the bourgeois of Paris, if their commerce languiſhed—if proviſions became dear—if the armies of the republic ſuſtained any defeat, might demand the reſtoration of their dethroned monarch: yet all the departments of France had, even while they reprobated the evils of anarchy, declared their inviolable attachment to a republican form of government. Such a difference of opinion, therefore, would have produced the moſt terrible commotions. Laſtly, it was aſſerted, that, if the king were ſent into exile, he would, after the republic had exhauſted all the national treaſures in ſupport of war, after the people had become wearied of long continued ſtruggles for liberty, return at the head of a powerful army, which would be joined by all the mal-contents of France, and aſſiſted by all the potentates of Europe.

It was obſerved, that, although the family of Stuart, baniſhed by the Engliſh nation, wandered over Europe, unpitied and abandoned, the family of Bourbon would as certainly find ſupport and aſſiſtance. England had only changed the family of its ſovereign; France had changed the form of its government. England only deſired to retain a limited monarchy; France had not only ſubverted monarchy, and eſtabliſhed a republic, but had ſet principles on float which, if ſuffered to ſpread, might lead to the general ſubverſion of monarchical power. The princes of Europe had nothing to dread from the baniſhment of James II; but their deſcendants had one common cauſe with Lewis XVI; and what he could never have hoped from their generoſity, he might from their policy have obtained.

In addition to the foregoing reaſons for putting the unfortunate monarch to death, there was yet another reaſon, perhaps ſtronger than all the reſt: and this was, that the national convention felt itſelf reduced to the diſmal alternative of leading the king to the ſcaffold, or of ſeeing not only himſelf but his whole family torn in pieces by the enraged populace. On the 10th of Auguſt, and on the day following, more than an hundred carts, loaded with dead bodies, had paſſed through the ſtreets of Paris: the people remembered that fatal ſpectacle—they conſidered their fallen relations

and

and friends as the victims of the court, and would too certainly have ſatiated their vengeance in the moſt inhuman manner: nor had the convention any power to prevent this violence, in which the national guard and the Fedérés would have joined.

The French king received the intell gence of his approaching fate without diſmay. He diſplayed far more firmneſs upon the ſcaffold than he had done upon the throne, and atoned for the weakneſs and inconſiſtency of his conduct in life, by the calmneſs and fortitude of his behaviour in death. The evening before his execution, his family, from whom he had been ſeparated ſince the commencement of his trial, were conducted to the tower of the Temple, and allowed the ſad indulgence of a laſt interview, unmoleſted by the preſence of his guards. Alas! when imagination pictured the anguiſh of ſuch an interview, it was not neceſſary to look back upon the former elevation of the ſufferer, in order to pity the gloomy tranſition in his fate! It was not neceſſary to recollect, that he who was the following morning to ſuffer death upon the ſcaffold, was once the firſt monarch of Europe, and would be led to execution through the ſtreets of his own capital! It was enough to conſider this unfortunate perſon as a man, a huſband, a father! Ah, ſurely, amid the agonies of final ſeparation from thoſe to whom we are bound by the ſtrongeſt ties of nature and affection! ſurely when we cling to thoſe we love, in the unutterable pang of a laſt embrace—in ſuch moments the monarch muſt forget his crown, and the regrets of diſappointed ambition muſt be unfelt amid the anguiſh which overwhelms the broken heart.—That anguiſh was not confined to the boſom of the king, the queen, and his ſiſter. The princeſs, his daughter, has attained that age when perhaps the ſoul is moſt ſuſceptible of ſtrong impreſſions, and its ſenſibility moſt exquiſite. Even the young prince, who is only in his ninth year, caught the infectious ſorrow, and while his eyes were bathed in tears, cried, ſobbing, to Santerre, 'Oh! let me run through the ſtreets—I will go to the diſtricts—I will go to all the ſections, and beg for my papa.'

The king had ſufficient firmneſs to avoid ſeeing his family on the morning of his execution! He deſired the queen might be told that he was unable to bear the ſight of her and his children in thoſe laſt moments! He took a ring off his finger, which contained ſome of his own hair, of the queen's, and of his two children, and deſired it might be given to the queen. He called the municipal officers round him, and told them, it was his dying requeſt, that Clery, his valet de chambre, might remain with his ſon. He then ſaid to Santerre, 'Let us go;' and after croſſing, with a hurried pace, the inner court of the Temple, he got into the mayor's carriage, which was in waiting, and was attended by his confeſſor.

It is certain that many of thoſe acts of illegal power, which brought the unhappy monarch to the ſcaffold, were dictated by the fanatical and diſcontented clergy which ſwarmed about his palace; by non-juring biſhops and archbiſhops; men who having loſt their wealth and their influence by the revolution, prompted the king to run all riſques in order to gratify their own reſentment. Some good, however, aroſe from this evil. In order to increaſe their influence, they had led the king into habits of conſtant devotion; and he had found in devotion what it is natural for the human heart to find, a refuge from calamity. In proportion as his misfortunes increaſed, and the proſpects of this world darkened around him, he appears to have ſought the ſoothing perſpective of a better region; and the gloomy ſolitude of his priſon was cheered by the bright viſions of futurity. If ſuch is the effect even of a ſuperſtitious and bigoted devotion, let the philoſophers of France beware of baniſhing religion from their country becauſe

becauſe of its ancient abuſes. Many of the French philoſophers are, indeed, bigots to infidelity, and narrow-minded in unbelief—many of them have rejected what they have not examined, and pronounced judgment upon things of which they are ignorant.

The calmneſs which Lewis XVI diſplayed on this great trial of human fortitude, is attributed not only to the ſupport his mind received from religious faith, but alſo to the hope which it is ſaid he cheriſhed, even till his laſt moment, that the people, whom he meant to addreſs from the ſcaffold, would demand that his life might be ſpared. And his confeſſor, from motives of compaſſion, had encouraged him in this hope. After aſcending the ſcaffold with a firm ſtep, twice the unhappy monarch attempted to ſpeak, and twice Santerre prevented him from being heard, by ordering the drums to beat immediately. Alas! had he been permitted to ſpeak, poor was his chance of exciting commiſeration! Thoſe who pitied his calamities had carefully ſhunned that fatal ſpot; and thoſe who moſt immediately ſurrounded him only waited till the ſtroke was given, in order to dip their pikes and their handkerchiefs in his blood!

Setting aſide all conſiderations of the former elevated rank, or the peculiar misfortunes of the ſufferer, to refuſe the privilege of utterance to one whoſe lips are the next moment to be cloſed in death—has in it ſomething ſo repugnant to all the feelings of our nature, that it ſeems a degree of ſeverity which could only have been practiſed by that man who had remained paſſive when the cry of humanity called upon him to act, and who was prompted to action at the very moment when the ſame ſentiment urged him to deſiſt. It is, however, aſſerted by many perſons, that Santerre, in having hindered the king from being heard, only performed his duty, and perhaps prevented the moſt terrible miſchiefs. The utmoſt precaution had indeed been uſed to avoid any diſorder, or the poſſibility of impeding the execution of the ſentence. Every ſection of Paris was under arms; a third part of the citizens of each ſection were appointed to guard that ſection to which they belonged; a third part to form the eſcort of the king, and a third part to patrol the ſtreets. Forty pieces of cannon were brought to the place of execution! and the fathers, the ſons, and brothers of thoſe who fell on the 10th of Auguſt, had been aſſiduouſly ſelected to ſurround the ſcaffold! It was alſo underſtood, that orders had been iſſued, that any perſon who cried *grace*, ſhould be inſtantly put to death. Notwithſtanding theſe precautions, an addreſs from the king might have produced a popular movement in his favour.

The French are a people of quick ſenſibility: they ſeem in ſome ſort the creatures of paſſion. Ungovernable in their reſentment, cruel and ferocious in their revenge, they yield with no leſs facility to the impulſe of mercy, and the ſympathy of compaſſion. Ever in extremes, they are capable of the moſt ſublime and the moſt atrocious actions, and inſpire alternate love and deteſtation.

Had the king being able to excite the pity of any part of that armed multitude which filled the vaſt Place de la Revolution, a profuſion of blood might have been ſpilt—A civil war might have ſpread deſolation through the city of Paris; but the life of the king would have been no leſs ſacrificed—and inſtead of receiving death at one ſtroke, he would probably have fallen pierced by a thouſand wounds. Two perſons who were on the ſcaffold aſſert, that the unhappy monarch, finding the hope he had cheriſhed, of awakening the compaſſion of the people, fruſtrated by the impoſſibility of his being heard, as a laſt reſource, declared that he had ſecrets to reveal of importance to the ſafety of the ſtate, and deſired he might be led to the national convention.

tion. Some of the guards who heard this declaration, cried, 'Yes, let him go to the convention!'—Others ſaid, 'No.'—Had the king been conducted to the convention, it is eaſy to imagine the effect which would have been produced on the minds of the people, by the ſight of their former monarch led through the ſtreets of Paris, with his hands bound, his neck bare, his hair already cut off at the foot of the ſcaffold in preparation for the fatal ſtroke—with no other covering than his ſhirt. At that ſight the enraged populace would have melted into tenderneſs, and the Pariſian women, among whom were numbers who paſſed the day in tears of unavailing regret, would have ruſhed between the monarch and his guards, and have attempted his reſcue, even with the riſk of life. Santerre, who foreſaw theſe conſequences, who perceived the danger of this riſing diſpute among the guards, called to the executioner to do his office.—Then it was, that deſpair ſeized upon the mind of the unfortunate monarch—his countenance aſſumed a look of horror—twice with agony he repeated, 'I am undone! I am undone!' His confeſſor mean time called to him from the foot of the ſcaffold, 'Son of St. Lewis, aſcend to heaven!' and in one moment he was delivered from the evils of mortality.

The executioner held up the bleeding head, and the guards cried 'Vive la Republique?' Some dipt their handkerchiefs in the blood—but the greater number, chilled with horror at what had paſſed, deſired the commandant would lead them inſtantly from the ſpot. The hair was ſold in ſeparate treſſes at the foot of the ſcaffold; and, as if every incident of this tragedy had been intended to diſplay the ſtrange viciſſitudes of human fortune, as if every ſcene were meant 'to point a moral,' the body was conveyed in a cart to the pariſh church of St. Madelaine, and laid among the bodies of thoſe who had been cruſhed to death on the Place de Lewis XV, when Lewis XVI was married, and of thoſe who had fallen before the chateau of the Thuilleries on the 10th of Auguſt.

The grave was filled with quick lime, and a guard placed over it till the corpſe was conſumed. The ground was then carefully levelled with the ſurrounding earth, and no trace or veſtige remains of that ſpot to which, ſhrouded by the doubtful gloom of twilight, ancient loyalty might have repaired, and poured a tear, or ſuperſtition breathed its ritual for the departed ſpirit.

That ſympathy which the misfortunes of Lewis XVI excited in his behalf, is now transferred to his family. Whatever have been the faults of the French queen, they have ſurely been expiated by her ſufferings. Madame Eliſabeth, his ſiſter, has diſplayed an attachment to her brother, for which thoſe who conſider his cauſe as a good one, will think ſhe almoſt deſerves altars; and even the moſt determined republican of France muſt admit, that to follow the fortunes of a brother, from a palace to a priſon, to reſign liberty, and to riſk life, rather than forſake thoſe we love in their calamities, are generous, and even heroical ſacrifices. The young princeſs was ſo deeply affected by her father's fate that it was for ſome days believed her life was in danger! The prince too was heard to enquire, 'Why have they put my papa to death? my papa had done no harm—will they make me die too?' Since the king's death the queen always addreſſes the prince by the appellation of ſire: ſhe does not take her place at table till after he is ſeated, and ſhews him all the cuſtomary forms of reſpect practiſed toward the repreſentative of the houſe of Bourbon. Such ceremonies are not unavailing, if they afford conſolation or relief in the ſolitude of that priſon where this unfortunate family will probably paſs years of joyleſs exiſtence. In that priſon where the windows only admit a dim religious light—where no ſound is heard

heard except the clashing of arms, is she immured who was once the leader of pleasure—who once lived encompassed with

'Pomp, and feast, and revelry,
'With mask and antique pageantry.'

The queen sent to ask mourning of the national convention. One is surprised she did not feel with Hamlet,

'Tis not alone this mourning suit,
'Together with all forms, modes, shapes of grief,
'That can denote me truly.'

LOCAL CURIOSITIES *and* ANECDOTES.

AT Oodooanulla, a town of Bengal, which is seated on the western bank of the Ganges, 200 miles north of Calcutta, are the remains of a palace, which, about 130 years ago, was the residence of sultan Sujah; who having been appointed soubah of Bengal, by his father, the emperor Shah Jehan, made Oodooanulla the seat of government for that province. This palace, during the residence of that prince, was nearly destroyed by fire. The zananah, or that part inhabited by the females of the family, was totally consumed; and a tradition prevails in this part of the country, that more than 300 women fell a sacrifice to modesty on this occasion; not one of them daring to save herself, from a dread of being seen by the men.

AMID the various opinions concerning the different modes of government, it is not universally known which is the *smallest* republic in Europe. It is the village of Gerisau in Switzerland, which is situated on the eastern branch of the Lake of Schweitz, at the foot of Mount Rigi. Its territory is only six miles in length and three in breadth; situated partly on a small neck of land at the edge of the lake, and partly lying upon the rapid declivity of the Rigi. It contains about 1200 inhabitants. They have their general assembly of burgesses, their landamman, their council of regency, their courts of justice, and their militia: but there is not a single horse in the whole territory of the republic, as indeed may well be supposed; for the only way of arriving at the town is by water, excepting a narrow path down the steep sides of the mountain, which is almost impassable. Gerisau is composed entirely of scattered houses and cottages of a very neat and picturesque appearance. Each dwelling is provided with a field or small garden. The inhabitants are much employed in preparing silk for the manufactures of Basle. This little republic is under the protection of the four cantons of Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, and Underwalden; and in case of war, furnishes its quota of men. To the ambitious politician, who judges of governments by extent of dominion and power, such a diminutive republic, thrown into an obscure corner, and scarcely known out of its own contracted territory, must appear unworthy of notice; but the smallest spot of earth on which true civil freedom is cultivated and flourishes, cannot fail to interest those who know the real value of liberty and independence, and are convinced that political happiness does not consist in great opulence and extensive empire.

NOT far from the borough of Lochmaben, in the county of Dumfries in Scotland, is Hodiam Castle, said to have been founded in the year 1437, by lord Herries. A mile to the south of this castle is a tower called *Repentance*. A pleasant answer of a shepherd's boy to sir Richard Steele, founded on the name of this tower, is mentioned by some writers: sir Richard having observed a boy lying on the ground, and very attentively

Berry Hill, Nottinghamshire.

tively reading his Bible, aſked if he could tell him the way to Heaven? 'Yes, ſir,' anſwered the boy, 'you muſt go by that tower.'

It is remarkable, that in the pariſh of Thorpe, between Chertſey and Egham, in Surry, there now actually reſides a living antique.—Mr. Wapſhot, a farmer, whoſe anceſtors have lived on the ſame ſpot ever ſince the time of king Alfred, by whom the farm was granted to Reginald Wapſhot, the anceſtor of the preſent family. Notwithſtanding the antiquity of this family (and can the Howards and Percies aſcend higher?) their ſituation in life has never been elevated or depreſſed by any viciſſitude of fortune; a more certain teſt of their integrity, perhaps, than if they had been ennobled.

An Account of BERRY HILL, *in* Nottinghamſhire, *the Seat of* WILLIAM BILBIE, *Eſq. With a Perſpective View of that elegant Manſion.*

BERRY HILL is ſituated about one mile from Mansfield, on the edge of Sherwood Foreſt. The late poſſeſſor made many very great additions and improvements to it. It ſtands on a ſpacious lawn containing eighty acres. The pleaſure-grounds are very extenſive and elegantly laid out by Mr. Mickle, a pupil of the late celebrated Capability Brown; the view upon the foreſt extends to a great diſtance: the fine old oaks are ſo diſpoſed, and the fences ſo contrived, that the foreſt appears a continuation of the grounds. A large piece of water adds not a little to the beauty of the place. As Mansfield lies ſo near Berry Hill, it may not be amiſs to ſay ſomething of it. Its market has the reputation of a very good one, though much cannot be ſaid of the beauty of the town. There are many conſiderable manufactures in this town and its vicinity. Sherwood Foreſt, to one fond of legendary tales, muſt prove an entertaining ſource of contemplation. To walk the haunts of Robin Hood; to trace the ſpot where thoſe wild ſons of Nature took up their ſolitary abode, and think here ſtood one, and there another ſhelter, in which helpleſs travellers were placed, to be ſtripped of their property, far from any probable aſſiſtance; to trace an imaginary route, by which they ſallied forth, to commit depredations—theſe are amuſing, and at the ſame time inſtructive. To bring back the remembrance of paſt ages, and think of the depravity of Man when Induſtry gives place to Idleneſs, muſt place in a ſtrong point of view the difference between the wandering life of thoſe banditti, and the calm tranquil ſtate of innocence and domeſtic happineſs, produced by a cloſe attention to the duties of ſociety. But there is ſomething in the character of Robin Hood, which muſt in ſome degree plead for him: he was generous and humane. Oppoſite to Mr. Bilbie's houſe is, at preſent, the moſt pleaſing part of the foreſt: it is thinned greatly of its lofty trees, and much of it is heathy and bare. Exceeding fine mutton is produced upon it, much valued by all the neighbourhood. It is not large, but of a moderate ſize. Mr. Bilbie's houſe ſtanding on high ground, commands fine proſpects from the back part. The plantation at Workſop Manor, the ſeat of the duke of Norfolk; and the beautiful houſe belonging to Mr. Gouch, with the village of Edwinſtow, are very eaſily diſcerned in the diſtance. The fine ſpire, with an evening ſun gilding its ſides, produces a charming ſcene. The village tower affords, in a variety of places, an effect always pleaſing. In this reſpect, England yields to no country. Towns and churches are diſperſed every where; few are the views where they are not to be found.

GLEANINGS.

Reign of Queen Ann and George I.

IN the year 1711, a queſtion in parliament was carried in the negative, by two accidents; the going out of one member, by chance, to ſpeak to ſomebody at putting the queſtion; and the coming in of another, in his boots, at the very minute. If either of theſe accidents had not happened, it had gone the other way. 'What great events from little cauſes flow?' Lord ****** loſt a queſtion of importance in the upper houſe, by ſtopping to cheapen a pen-knife.

'I wiſh you a merry Lent. I hate Lent;' ſays dean Swift, 'I hate different diets, and furmity and butter, and herb porridge, and the four devout faces of people, who only put on religion for ſeven weeks.' The dean, conſidering his ſtrong attachment to the church, and his averſion to the diſſenters, was ſufficiently lax in his obſervance of ceremonies, and not a little ſo in his language.

The extravagant charges of tavern keepers in queen Ann's time were not leſs deſerving of complaint then, than they are now. The duke of Ormond, who gave a dinner to a few friends at the Star and Garter in Pall-mall, was charged twenty-one pounds, ſix ſhillings and eight-pence, for four diſhes, and four, that is, firſt and ſecond courſe, without wine or deſert.

The fatal duel between the duke of Hamilton and lord Mohun is well known. One Macartney was ſecond to lord Mohun, and was ſuſpected of having ſtabbed the duke treacherouſly; a reward was offered for apprehending him. About that time a gentleman was ſet upon by highwaymen, and with a happy preſence of mind, told them he was Macartney. On which they brought him to a juſtice of peace, in hopes of the reward, when he gave charge againſt them for the robbery, and they were ſent to jail.

Harriſon, who was ſecretary to the Britiſh embaſſy at Utrecht in the reign of queen Ann, a poſt of conſiderable truſt and honour, was once in the ſituation of Gil Blas when admitted to be ſecretary to the prime miniſter. Harriſon was one morning with Swift for three hours, and when Swift came to the door, he found a coach that had been waiting all the while. Swift chid him for it. Poor Harriſon told him it was impoſſible to do otherwiſe, for he had not one farthing in his pocket to pay for it, and therefore took the coach for the whole day, and intended to borrow money ſomewhere or another. So, ſays Swift, there was the queen's miniſter, intruſted in affairs of the greateſt importance, without a ſhilling in his pocket to pay a coach.

Colonel Diſney was a fellow of abundance of humour; an old battered rake; but very honeſt. It was he that ſaid of Jenny Kingdom, one of the queen's maids of honour, but very old, that, ſince ſhe could not get a huſband, the queen ſhould give her a *brevet*, to act as a married woman! —They give brevets to majors and captains to act as colonels in the army.

Dr. Davenant ſays, acts of friendſhip create friends, even among ſtrangers, that taſte not of them; and, in my experience, I hardly ever knew a man friendly in the courſe of his proceedings, but he was ſupported in the world; ingratitude being the vice of which the generality of men are moſt aſhamed to be thought guilty.

The moſt generous revenge, ſaid an obſcure gentleman of thoſe days, is to make the ungrateful appear yet more ungrateful, by laying freſh obligations upon them. This would be more often practiſed, if men were not too proud, and conſidered not their obligations in too high a light.

Lord Bolingbroke, in the fullneſs of confidence, wrote to a friend, 'In a little

a little time, perhaps, I may have leiſure to be happy.' Happineſs, we may be certain, is not to be found in thoſe buſtling concerns, which employ the time of politicians, and thoſe who would be thought great men. The happy medium lies ſomewhere between this and idleneſs—if one could but find it out.

What was ſaid of the conſtitution of this country, in the beginning of the reign of George I, is perhaps as juſtly applicable now. The conſtitution is no more in danger than a ſtrong man, that has got a little ſurfeit by drunkenneſs. All will be well, and people recover their ſober ſenſes every day. Moderation is neceſſary as well in thinking as in drinking. Exceſs in either makes men lunatics, or, to ſay the leaſt, very unreaſonable beings.

Moſt people do not underſtand the meaning of the word nonſenſe. The duchieſs of Queenſbury uſed to ſay, ſhe had no objection to a perſon's talking nonſenſe, provided he does it on purpoſe; there is ſome ſenſe in nonſenſe, when it does not come by chance. How much nonſenſe is talked in one evening in a mixed company, but then it makes people happy, and merry, and pleaſed with one another. It is on ſuch occaſions they do not quarrel, and laugh *at* one another.

Loſs of friends has been called a tax upon long life, and what is worſe, it is then too late to get others, if they were to be had, for the younger ones are all engaged.—I think, ſays Swift, we never lament the death of a friend upon his own account, but merely on account of his friends, or the public, or both.

The moſt difficult queſtion with ſenſible parents is, what to do with their children after they have gone through the ſchool. Here is a dangerous chaſm to be filled up. Mr. Locke makes a full ſtop there, and there are few who know how to adminiſter helps to children at that time of life.

Dr. Arbuthnot complained that he was weary of the world, and tired with ſo much bad company, which is very remarkable of a man of Arbuthnot's turn; a man of humour, whoſe mind ſeemed to be always pregnant with comic ideas, and turned chiefly, if not only, to that which is ridiculous, even in vice itſelf. That to ſuch a man, to whoſe fancy almoſt every character and every event furniſhed a comedy, death ſhould be welcome, becauſe life was inſipid, is a melancholy and ſtriking proof, that 'even in laughter the heart is ſorrowful;' or that thoſe who are beſt qualified to make others merry, are not always merry themſelves, and that their mirth is often the mere effect of a painful effort, exerted chiefly for the gratification of vanity, the ſad concomitant of vexation of ſpirit.

An atheiſt is but a mad ridiculous derider of piety; but a hypocrite makes a ſober jeſt of God and religion. He finds it eaſier to be upon his knees than to riſe to do a good action; like an imprudent debtor, who goes every day and talks familiarly to his creditor without ever paying what he owes.

Flowers of rhetoric in ſermons and ſerious diſcourſes, are like the blue and red flowers in corn, pleaſing to thoſe who come only for amuſement, but prejudicial to him who would reap the profit.

It is a certain truth, that a man is never ſo eaſy or ſo little impoſed upon, as among people of the beſt ſenſe; it coſts far more trouble to be admitted, or continued in ill company than in good; as the former have leſs underſtanding to be employed, ſo they have more vanity to be pleaſed; and to keep a fool conſtantly in good humour with himſelf and with others, is no very eaſy taſk.

A family (ſaid dean Swift, who never had a family) is but too often a common-wealth of malignants: what we call the charities and ties of affinity, prove but ſo many ſeparate and claſhing intereſts: the ſon wiſhes the death of the father; the younger

brother that of the elder: the elder repines at the ſiſter's portions; when any of them marry, there are new diviſions, and new animoſities. It is but natural and reaſonable to expect all this, and yet we fancy no comfort but in a family.

Dr. Sterne, dean of St. Patrick, made an odd diſpoſition of his library. He had a large collection of books, and placed them in the upper part of the deanry houſe, which he fitted up for this purpoſe, in one great room, with a fire place at each end. He enlarged this collection very much in the ſubſequent part of his life, and when he died biſhop of Clogher, in 1745, he bequeathed ſuch books out of it, to the truſtees of the public library in Dublin, founded by primate Marſh, as they wanted. The remainder he directed to be ſold, and the money to be divided among the curates of his dioceſe, but as thoſe gentlemen choſe rather to have the *books* divided among them, all the books, being a great number, were divided into lots, as nearly equal as poſſible in value, and nailed up in boxes, that were numbered. Duplicates of theſe numbers were written on pieces of paper, and the curates drew for them in this literary lottery.

LETTER ON PRINTING.

[From the French.]

IT has been a long time in my mind, to take printing to pieces; now have at it; though you may think it odd to do ſo in anſwer to a letter, wherein you expatiate on that art with ſuch elogiums: but in an oppoſition of ſentiments, who can forbear contradicting the beſt of friends? the loweſt I can go is to forbear paſſing ſentence; I will only contraſt my complaints againſt your panegyrics, and refer the deciſion to the public wiſdom.

The ineſtimable art, you ſay, with four arms to do the work of two thouſand tranſcribers! or within twenty days to diſpatch as many copies of a book, as, otherwiſe, would have taken up ſo many years! there is a ſaving of time and expence! It is to this we owe the like exact correctneſs in thouſands of copies; had bibles been printed before St. Jerome, it would have prevented his complaint, that through the negligence or wickedneſs of the tranſcribers, the ſacred books are ſtrangely diſfigured.

To what does this age, of all others the moſt enlightened, owe its deliverance from old prejudices, and its new acquiſitions, but from the preſs? Without the preſs, every ſcientific or literary diſcovery would undergo the fate of oral or written traditions, be adulterated, or quite loſt; books would then be within the reach only of the wealthy; that is, of thoſe who care the leaſt for them; and the ſcarcity of ſome books would mount them to a price for none but kings. How would families be provided with forms of devotions, ſermons, and other ſuch edifying books, and at what a loſs would moſt of our prieſts be for deciſion of caſes of conſcience, and materials for their exhortations.

Theſe encomiums, ſir, you have verified by ſome modern paſſages very much to the honour of your favourite art. You tell me that one Gaguin, a learned trinitarian, has ſaid both in proſe and verſe, that the invention of types is of a wonderful utility, and that the celebrated biſhop Campanus, more laconic than Gaguin, has comprehended no leſs in a ſingle line,—

'Imprimit illa die quantum vix ſcribitur anno.'

and that the printers may not loſe an ace of honour, you further offer to my conſideration the following pretty diſtich.

'Nobi-

'Nobilitant artes mutas æs, marmora, saxum:
Prælum æri, saxo, marmoribusque præit.'

You also put me in mind tha Fernal has somewhere (I suppose you yourself don't know the place, else, to be sure, I should have had chapter and verse) said in Latin, 'Arte librorum calcographica nihil est ad omnium disciplinarum propagationem utilius'; that the divine Melancthon terms it, 'A most valuable gift of God to mankind;' and Aventine, 'Who can doubt this transcendant invention of the new manner of writing to be of divine origin?'

What a pity it is that the Greeks and Romans afford nothing on printing! I should have had a pompous regale of quotations from them to silence all disparagement of this heaven-born art; just as if any one, to prove the salubrity of punch, should publish a list of the English throats down which it is daily copiously poured: by your leave, no more authorities in argumentative points; so far are they from weighing with me, that I suspect an accumulated quotation of them. What signifies telling me what others have thought, unless you convince me that I ought to close with their opinions? But you may save yourself this trouble likewise, for that printing has its advantages, is what I subscribe to as readily as yourself: but I also perceive some inconveniences in it; therefore demonstrate to me that, upon a fair computation of the advantages and inconveniences, the balance will be of the advantageous side, else it cannot absolutely be called beneficial.

Previous to the solution of this question, it were perhaps not improper to enquire whether to be learned is useful to a man. Inquire! say you, why, is that a question? no; not according to the vanity of scholars; but is the fondness of self-love for any thing, a proof of its real value? Is it not daily seen to plume itself with frivolities, which rather debase than dignify a man?

Minutolo's arrogance rises and falls according to the wealth of his button holes; his voice and air are directed by the richness of his surtout. He was quite communicative and easy when he dressed plain; should the taylor add another ornament to his next suit, 'tis odds if his pride don't choke him: is the wonderful utility of lace to be inferred from hence?

That, whereby a man's condition is bettered, and that only, do I call useful. Can this be said of learning? There is Didacius, lodged in a hole of a room, sequestered from the enjoyments of life, which, indeed, are also beyond his pocket: after twenty years attenuating study, at length he has finished a large manuscript stuffed with Latin, Greek, and Hebrew; for this the bookseller took care to give him but a starving price, yet it was overpaid, the toilsome work after all proving a drug; however he comforted himself with the hopes of reputation: when out comes a pamphlet detecting innumerable blunders in this decennial labour. This disgrace quite unhinges a brain already touched by an excessive intenseness; the erudite Didacius raves, so that well may the poor woman his nurse say, she would not change conditions with him.

Now, from the studious Didacius, turn your eyes to the worthy Agriote, that substantial farmer, your neighbour, master of not above a hundred acres, and which have been in his family above two hundred years; all his wealth lies in his fruits, grain and cattle, yet with these, he has brought up a round family, married his daughters, settled his sons, apprenticed poor nephews who were helpless in their childhood, and even relieved several rustics of his village; he is beloved to adoration, blessings are implored for him with ecstacy. It is not said of him, that he has written a wretched book; nor is it said that he has published an excellent

cellent piece; but all over the country you hear Agriote is a moſt valuable man, ſo ſympathizing, ſo ready to do any good office, ſo moderate, ſo ſincere, ſo regular in all his ways. Ye bloated doctors, ye frivolous ſmatterers, what is the fame you are ſtriving after, in reſpect of ſuch gratulations. If by any compoſition you deſerve the like, write on by all means; if not, away with your chimerical reputation, and learn to be happy and virtuous.

All the literary acquiſitions which are attainable by the utmoſt efforts of application and intelligence, are ſo ſmall a matter, and withal of ſo little uſe, that they are not worth the ſacrifice of health, reſt, and ſocial enjoyments.

However, I promiſed you, ſir, not to ſet up for a dictator. Let who will enter upon the purſuit of the ſciences; they are welcome for me; I ſhall by no means offer to pull them back, willingly acknowledging, that though the cultivator himſelf is ſeldom much the better for his ſtock of literature, yet ſometimes the public is; and when that is the end of their reſearches, ſtatues are not too much for them; as certainly, for individuals to devote themſelves to the general good is the moſt exalted patriotiſm.

But the query is, whether printing itſelf forwards the progreſs of the ſciences? Indiſputably; learning is become much more general by the help of printing: from the preſs has iſſued as it were a torrent of light, which has illuminated all Europe; *but its extenſion has diminiſhed its radiance.* A ſmatterer indeed is now as common a creature as was formerly a dunce; but where is the real man of learning? The pains required before printing, to be initiated into a ſcience, incited the ſtudent to make himſelf amends, by penetrating into its inmoſt receſſes, which ſeldom miſſed of reputation and recompence.

One advantage which printing muſt be allowed, is to have rendered common what are called claſſic authors, and excellent treatiſes in all kinds of arts, ſciences and literature, but then theſe are ſo few that they ſcarce deſerve to come into account. Moſt people would be at no loſs for leiſure to tranſcribe ſuch as ſuited them, and with the advantage of being pretty well maſters of the contents when they had gone through them; and a way of even multiplying the copies might be found, were it only to dictate them in public to an audience of ſome hundreds or thouſands. We know many profeſſors, who for two hours every day are uttering ſuch ſhallow undigeſted rhapſodies, that it would be well, if coming in at one of the ears of ſcholars, they immediately went out at the other.

But not to appear ungrateful, I return my ſincere thanks to printing, for having ſo exuberantly furniſhed us with Homer, Demoſthenes, Herodotus, Plato, Virgil, Horace, Cicero, Quintilian, Euclid, Livy, and Pliny, of all ſorts and ſizes, provided I may be allowed to complain, that it has alſo deluged us with the rubbiſh of verboſe commentators, a breed who may promote the paper manufacture, but are the peſts of true literature.

But, methinks, I ſee you frowningly ſtand up for theſe publiſhers of gloſſaries; your weakneſs for theſe pedants is offended; what? ſay you, is it a ſmall happineſs, for thoſe who are but indifferently verſed in the dead languages, that able men have cleared their way for them?

That is what they uſually fall ſhort of; it is not ſo much as in their thoughts; their main aim is to diſplay their trivial erudition: as to the difficulties of clearing up an author's meaning in ſome ſubtle, delicate or profound thought, here the commentator drops you, his talent does not lye that way: but what would you ſay, ſhould I affirm, and I do, that if commentators are ſo exceedingly helpful to the underſtanding of authors,

thors, ſo much the worſe. The overplus time which authors, before notes came up, took to be underſtood, was no more loſs than that which cadets ſpend in exerciſes proper for inuring them to fatigue: many helps do but ſpoil us; they induce lazineſs, and a habit of ſeeing with the eyes of others. The analyſes, commentaries, *ſcholias* and paraphraſes, all owing their exiſtence to the expeditious preſs, by facilitating ſciences, have ruined them; they are eaſy carriages in which we imagined to reach Minerva's temple without any rub or jolt, but if we happen to meet with a hedge, a mire, an eminence, or a brook; theſe ſo delightful carriages fail us, and our legs, for want of uſe and activity, are unable to carry us through the journey.

I profeſs myſelf not to be againſt methods of ſtudy, which have ſome reaſonable difficulty in them; they generally anſwer the labour. It is only for the great that I hold with facile methods, as a little matter of learning does with them: can you think that we ſhould be more healthy, were all our food pounded ſo as to want no maſtication?

But, ſir, how will you clear printing of the reproach with which it is manifeſtly chargeable, of having perpetuated thouſands of ſilly, filthy, erroneous, flagitious books, which without this admirable invention of types, would poſſibly never have ſeen the light, or have died in their birth. Is not Spain, among myriads of other books, highly obliged to the preſs for the *Aiecedarium Marianum*, dedicated to the Bleſſed Virgin, a work of twenty one volumes folio? you anſwer, that if through the futility and depravation of men there be ſuch an abuſe of printing, on the other hand, to printing it is that we owe the multiplicity and preſervation of excellent compoſitions.

Not at all; I diſown the obligation; the preſs only ſerves to increaſe and perpetuate bad books; thoſe of genius and utility would ſpread of themſelves; their beauty and advantages would procure employment to tranſcribers. This reminds me of an advice which I have long thought of laying before the revenue contractors, for obtaining (though to be ſure not without putting ſome money in the government's pocket) a tax on the preſſes, at ſo much a page, in folio, quarto, &c. I am for having all books in the oracular ſtyle, its obſcurity excepted, ſo that nothing which could be fairly compriſed in twenty pages, ſhould be ſpun out to ten volumes, under the double penalty of the tax; half of which to go to the ſaid worthy contractors, and the other half to the relief of indigent authors.

But I cloſe with a grievance of infinitely more moment. Printing has made all mankind ſet up for reaſoners, a vanity productive of indocile heads and mutinous hearts. The cement of ſubordination is humility, a virtue not likely to be gained by books; an inſpired authority has ſaid that *knowledge puffeth up*; as little fit are they to make ſoldiers, huſbandmen and artificers. The army, the villages, the manufactories, have not perhaps been more thinned by the oſtentation of the great in their groups of livery men, than by books. Is it natural that a wit ſhould be fond of expoſing to bullets and ſabres, a head teeming with grand ideas, refined thoughts and plans of enchanting compoſitions? Would you have a hand formed for writing romances, elegies, idylls and epigrams, ſweat at the ſpade or plow? Can he who thinks himſelf born to inform the univerſe, or fit to fill a throne, ſtoop to make a hat or a ſhoe.

Reſtrain that inundation of books, of which this ſame printing is the origin; and when they are once difficult to come at, nothing but a heartfelt predeſtination for ſcience, an irreſiſtible impulſe to literature, will be of force, to induce a man to provide himſelf with any. The learned

would ſink in number and riſe in defeat, their paucity would add a luſtre to their reputation, their rewards alſo would be more advantageous as there would be few competitors to ſhare them; they would ſtand higher in the world's regard, being thought the only perſons converſant in exalted ſubjects, and proper to preſide at a board, or declaim at a congreſs.

Aboliſh the myſtery of printing, and we ſhould hear of few libels or ſatires. Is it rejoined that there may be reading without printing? Allowed; but who will be the readers? Not the commonalty; it will then be the privilege only of perſons of education and diſcernment, led to it by a natural principle; now from theſe a government has nothing to fear. If all men were clear-ſighted, they would only be the eaſier led, unleſs it were to a precipice; but of all men, the refractory and moſt difficult to be led, are the dim-ſighted and purblind; and ſuch are the people found to be, when they muſt needs take upon them to be uſing their eyes, on objects with which their callings will not permit any proportionate acquaintance. I own I have opened myſelf as to a friend, on a ſubject, in which I may be ſingular; but as a friend ſhould (though it be above the ſoul of a pedant or a bigot) bear with a diverſity of ſentiment; this indulgence I have reaſon confidently to expect from you, otherwiſe I know not whether I have chriſtianity enough ſincerely to ſubſcribe myſelf, ſir,

YOUR FRIEND WITHOUT RESERVE.

REMARKS *during a* SIX WEEKS RESIDENCE *in* Oxfordſhire *and* Glouceſterſhire, *in* 1792: *In a Series of Letters to a Friend.*

LETTER III.

Oxford, Auguſt 1792.

DEAR SIR,

THERE are many ſingularities in the hiſtory of the Ratcliffe library; but the ſingular character of the founder, and the ſingular conſtruction of the building, ſtand foremoſt. Radcliffe was a humouriſt of rather an unpleaſing caſt; rough, harſh, and unaccommodating. His ſkill in preſerving the health of others had no power over his own; and his attachment to the bottle, though perhaps the leaſt criminal of his propenſities, was not the leaſt conſpicuous. Radcliffe was neither a man of reading, nor a collector of books. When Dr. Bathurſt, of Trinity, aſked him where his ſtudy was; Radcliffe pointed to a few phials, an herbal, and a ſkeleton, and anſwered, 'Sir, this is Radcliffe's library.' There was no circumſtance in his life that indicated the future founder of a library. 'For Radcliffe to leave a library was as if an eunuch ſhould found a ſeraglio,' was the witticiſm of Dr. Garth.

Certain it is, however, his munificence was principally directed to this object. His firſt intention was to have enlarged the Bodleian; but not agreeing with the univerſity on the plan, he bequeathed, at his death, the ſum of forty thouſand pounds to found a new library. He died in 1714; but the preſent building, I know not why, was not begun before the year 1737, and was completed in ten years, by Gibbs, a native of Aberdeen in Scotland, an architect of ſome eminence for the ſcientific regularity of his maſſes, but ſeldom quoted for the elegance of his taſte. There is a heavy grandeur when you view this library, and when you enter it, a ſolemn ſepulchral gloom. 'You will be ſtruck with awe,' ſaid a gentleman to me, 'when you enter the Radcliffe library.'—But why ſtruck with awe on entering a library? Will the *dim religious light* of a cathedral aſſiſt a ſtudent? But of old the wits have made free with this ſtructure. One calls it Radcliffe's *mauſoleum*; another ſays, it looks as if it were making a curtſey; and a third, that it ſeems to have

have ſunk into the ground. A very common eye will not diſcover all this; a faſtidious one will perceive much more. The library room, however, it muſt be confeſſed, compenſates, by its majeſtic form, and graceful dome, for all the load of its cumbrous externals.

But a Bodley was wanting to fill the ſhelves; the collection is tolerably large, but very defective, and as a library it is very little reſorted to. Some years ago, it was propoſed to transfer to this edifice all the manuſcripts belonging to the other libraries, a deſign which was never executed. As the univerſity have lately been enabled to extend their ſchool of medicine to a rivalſhip with Edinburgh or London, and as the lectures are now well attended, and, what is better, worthy of being well attended, perhaps they may think it expedient to employ the funds of this library, in rendering it a complete repoſitory of medical books, and medical and chirurgical apparatus, both ancient and modern. We have no collection on this plan in the kingdom, unleſs private ones; and in the preſent decaying ſtate of the foreign medical ſchools, the ſcheme might not be impracticable in point of expence. In point of utility, its attractions would be irreſiſtible.

To Dr. Radcliffe's truſtees, Oxford is indebted for an hoſpital, ſaid to be built on the plan of the county infirmary at Glouceſter; but, I think, it is rather inferior to it in neatneſs and in ſituation. The Aſtronomical Obſervatory was alſo furniſhed by theſe truſtees, from the ſurplus money, after building the library. Keene was the original architect, but the completion of it has been given to one who ſeems born to add to the magnificence of Oxford. Need I name Wyatt? Or can I name him without the indignant regret that the metropolis has loſt his *chef d'œuvre*, the Pantheon, by the careleſſneſs, or wilful malignity of a profligate ſet of adventurers, who were allowed to fill it with combuſtibles in the ſhape of an Italian theatre? It was, indeed, a previous cauſe of regret, that the talents of the greateſt genius of the age ſhould be employed on a building that was ſo ſoon after to be deſerted by the revolution of taſteleſs faſhion. It ſtood juſt twenty years. During the latter part of this time, *a foreigner* would viſit the Pantheon, to be convinced that the purity, the majeſty, and the grace of architecture were revived. *We* went there to look at a balloon, or an old woman fencing.

It is not my intention to deſcribe the various beauties or defects of the ſeveral colleges of this place. That would be copying. Perhaps, merely for common uſe, the little publication, called the Oxford Guide, will ſuffice. Every town of note ought to have ſomething of this kind. They are better than moſt *living* guides, the Cicerons, at certain noblemen's ſeats particularly, who are common ſervants, whoſe ignorance would be wholly unpardonable, if it did not afford ſome portion of amuſement by the changes they are eternally ringing on Hannibal *Scratchi*, Paul *Varniſh*, &c.

Leaving, therefore, what has been ſo often deſcribed, and is ſo well known, I ſhall content myſelf with ſpecifying the repairs and decorations on which Mr. Wyatt is at preſent employed.

The principal of theſe is New College Chapel. My friend, who accompanied me, modeſtly declined all notion of rivaling King's College Chapel, Cambridge. That, it is to be feared, muſt ever ſtand alone. Yet this, when finiſhed, will unqueſtionably rank next to it. Wyatt appears almoſt unrivalled in the *ſcience* of Gothic architecture. I ſay *ſcience*, becauſe I have no word to expreſs my idea of his ſkill better. In the Grecian, you have many proofs of his taſte. In this chapel, he has recovered a great many curious wooden entablatures of exquiſite workmanſhip, which appear to have been placed here at the beginning of the laſt cen-

tury. The ſubjects of ſome of them are intereſting to the antiquary; others border on the ridiculous, but are ſtrongly characteriſtic of rude times, when the opinion was that 'vice to be hated needs only to be ſeen,' and accordingly men's ſins were *carved* to the life!

I need not tell you that the painted windows of this chapel are reſorted to as objects of great curioſity. The hiſtory of painted glaſs may derive ſome light from the contraſt here between the ancient and modern performances. The window from ſir Joſhua's cartoons is now caſed; conſiderable ſums have been offered for a peep, but the orders of the ſociety are ſo ſtrict that this cannot be obtained. The three windows of ſtained glaſs on the north ſide were put up in 1774. They contain twenty-four figures of patriarchs and prophets, as large as the life, each in a niche, upon a pedeſtal, and under a Gothic canopy. The colours have loſt none of their original brilliancy.

New College chapel is expected to be finiſhed in about two years, but as the Encænia conſequent on the inſtallation of a new chancellor will take place next year, endeavours are to be made to open the chapel about that period. Coincidence of time, in certain events, adds to their celebrity.

Mr. Wyatt is alſo employed on Magdalen Hall and Chapel, which laſt will deſerve to be mentioned with that of New College. The ornamental part is, I think, more ſimple, but the great effect, the combination, is not of equal grandeur. This artiſt's ſumptuous plan for completing this college by two additional wings, pulling down one ſide of the old quadrangle, and gothiciſing the preſent new building, hangs in the ſitting room. The ſociety are poſſeſſed of a ſum adequate to the completion of this purpoſe, but there is ſaid to be ſome heſitation, whether the plan would anſwer as to effect.

There is much antiquity about Magdalen College; the old tower is a ſtructure of the truly venerable caſt. The walks belonging to the college, particularly that called Addiſon's, are among the beſt in Oxford. The beautiful gravel walk from this place round the meadows is valuable, from the charming views we get at various points. To him whoſe reſidence is in London, the walks of Oxford have peculiar attractions.

Of leſſer works, may be mentioned the library of Oriel College, which Wyatt is now building; a plain, but handſome room, well adapted to the purpoſe. The beauties of ancient architecture may be reſtored, but modern funds will allow of no rivalſhip. The munificence of Henry and Wolſey is no more to be expected in the ſchools of learning. The value of money is fallen, and that which for the ſame ſum, could formerly have been grand, can now be only plain and uſeful. From an account extant in the Bodleian library, it appears that the expences of Chriſt Church College, for one year, were 7835l. 7s. 2d. It was completed in five years, and we ſhall ſuppoſe the whole expence to have been 40,000l. Newgate coſt 50,000l; and Somerſet Place has already conſumed 350,000l.

I have already mentioned the Obſervatory, which is nearly completed by Wyatt, who, I believe, built the pretty houſe inhabited by the Savillian profeſſor. What remains of the obſervatory is the *eight wind*, in the manner of the temple of Athens, and the atlas intended for the top. The Radcliffe truſtees gave a ſet of aſtronomical inſtruments. The preſent duke of Marlborough has been a liberal benefactor; he beſtowed the land on which the obſervatory is built, and a reflecting teleſcope which coſt a thouſand pounds. A building, with a moveable roof, will ſoon be finiſhed for this inſtrument.

Theſe are the principal works that have called forth thoſe varieties of genius which, once in a century perhaps, unite in one man. And theſe improvements muſt be mentioned as

no inconſiderable proofs of a reviving ſpirit and taſte in the univerſity.

After a ramble through the ſeveral colleges and halls, your mind becomes full, and you wiſh to diſcharge it by a minute and loquacious diſcription of all you have ſeen; but to what has been ſo often deſcribed, is it poſſible to add any thing new? Every object, however, does not attract in the ſame degree, and were I to depart from the rule I laid down, it would be eaſy to deſcant at great length on thoſe objects which arreſted my attention, and gratified my curioſity. I would endeavour to give you an idea of that everlaſting monument of ambitious munificence, Chriſt's Church, founded by Wolſey, and continued, after his death, by Henry VIII, whoſe ſins the artiſt and the antiquary will readily pardon. It would require a volume to do juſtice to the varieties of magnificence in the great quadrangle, in Peckwater Square, Canterbury Court, or the cathedral. From theſe I ſhould be tempted to paſs to the chapel of Lincoln College, that of St. John's, almoſt the whole of Queen's College, St. Mary's or the Univerſity Church, and the chapel of All Souls; the latter is a moſt exquiſite miniature, finiſhed in a taſte which never fails to attract the attention of ſtrangers. Viewed from the anti-chapel, it appears like fairy-work; the light is admitted in the moſt delicate proportion, and gives a charming effect to Mengs's *Noli me tangere*, which is over the communion-table.

Were I to point your attention to the college gardens, it would be unpardonable to omit thoſe of Merton, St. John's, Trinity, Magdalen Grove, and New College. None of theſe, it muſt be allowed, will afford pleaſure from the landſcape, if we except Merton, but as the ſilent and cool retreats of meditation, they are admirable appendages to the ſeats of learning.

Of the ſchools, the theatre, and the muſeum, I have little to ſay; the latter has never been eſteemed a very capital collection, nor do the Oxonians value themſelves upon it. The ſchools and the theatre have been deſcribed over and over.

Streater's ceiling has been much admired, and I ſhould perhaps admire it too, if I could be pleaſed with any paintings ſo placed as to violate every law of imitation. At Blenheim the painted roofs reminded me of the old monkiſh prodigies,

'And there were battailles ſeen in the ayre.'

Accept now a few gleanings of information reſpecting Oxford.

There is nothing more obſervable here than the cleanneſs in which all the public edifices are built. The town partakes of this in a very great degree; the houſes being moſtly of ſtone, adds greatly to the neat appearance of the ſtreets. The ſtone is brought at an eaſy expence from Shotover hill.

The population of Oxford is rather diminiſhed of late years, at leaſt I am well informed that there is no perceptible increaſe. Few people like college or city leaſes here. There are no new ſtreets, and ſuch houſes as are new have been rebuilt by individuals upon the ſite of the old. Here are no ſpeculators who build ſtreets, and then look round them for inhabitants. In 1781, Oxford contained two thouſand three hundred houſes, which paid the duty on houſes and windows. This, I conceive, may give us a population exceeding ten thouſand. But a gentleman aſſures me that the preſent number of houſes is 1814, and of inhabitants 8292. It is difficult to arrive at certainty in theſe matters. The number of gownſmen, including every member of each college, was in 1787, two thouſand four hundred and ninety; and in 1791, amounted to two thouſand ſix hundred and two, a viſible increaſe. I may here mention, from a memorandum I picked up ſome where, that the whole number of ſcholars in the

year 1612 amounted to two thouſand nine hundred and twenty.

The tradeſmen of the city no doubt derive their principal ſupport from the colleges. Here are no manufactures of any conſequence; and—which I ſhould have been glad to remark of manufacturing towns—no lottery offices are allowed to be kept. I need not add that players are not permitted to enter the city, nor muſt a theatre be opened within ſeveral miles of it. To theſe and other reſtraints, impoſed by the chief magiſtrate, I mean, the vice chancellor, it is owing, that, in Oxford, public decency, at leaſt, is in ſome degree preſerved. And this, if it anſwered no better purpoſe, contributes to the ſilence and ſolitude neceſſary to a place of education. But, I am ſorry to be obliged to add, that, in one reſpect, there is a very obvious relaxation of diſcipline. The numbers of 'light huſwives' who parade the ſtreets, reflect no honour on the high prerogative of the magiſtrates.

The power of the vice chancellor is very great, and has been ſecured by repeated confirmations of the crown and parliament. I am told, however, that the boundaries of the vice chancellor's juriſdiction are not laid down in any poſitive ſtatute. Some think his authority may ſuperintend for five miles, but this is uncertain. The mildneſs with which this power has been exerted, contributes to perpetuate this uncertainty, which will probably one day or other be reſolved by the colliſion of rigid virtue with obſtinate profligacy.

In ſome acts, as in that reſpecting the aſſize of bread, the univerſities are excepted, as being governed by the laws of their own corporation. Every univerſity is a corporation, and every college is a corporation within that; the ſtates of America are not more independent of each other than the colleges, although they all unite for purpoſes that affect the common cauſe. The magiſtrates here, the mayor, aldermen, bailiffs, &c. take oaths of obedience and allegiance to the univerſity, repreſented in the perſon of the vice chancellor.

If we conſider that Oxford is the profeſſed nurſe of the hierarchy and toryiſm, we ſhall not expect that it ſhould be the reſidence of many diſſenters; yet here are two meetings, one belonging to the proteſtant diſſenters, which has exiſted more than a century; the other to the methodiſts of Weſley's perſuaſion. Their peaceable manners and demeanour entitle them to protection, and if ever moleſted in their character, it is generally by ſome bigot on the other ſide, who, from what I can learn, is not countenanced in this by the univerſity.

That excellent inſtitution of Sunday ſchools has been extended to this place. There are four or five ſchools of this kind, which are ſupported principally by private ſubſcriptions. In ſome of theſe, the children wear an uniform, a circumſtance which I have not had occaſion to obſerve any where elſe; but if their funds are adequate to the expence, there can be no impropriety in uniform cleanlineſs. I am, &c.

A curious Account of the CUSTOMS *and* MANNERS *of the* MORLACCHI, *a People of* Dalmatia.

THE people called Morlacks, or Morlacchi, inhabit Morlachia, which lies among the inland mountains of Dalmatia, a country extending along the N.E. coaſt of the gulf of Venice. The abbé Fortis, who has publiſhed a volume of 'Travels into Dalmatia,' has related many curious and intereſting particulars concerning them. With regard to their character, we are informed that they are much injured by their maritime neighbours. The inhabitants of the ſea coaſt of Dalmatia tell many

many frightful ſtories of their avarice and cruelty: but theſe, in our author's opinion, are all either of an ancient date, or if any have happened in latter times, they ought rather to be aſcribed to the corruption of a few individuals, than to the bad diſpoſition of the nation in general; and though thieviſh tricks are frequent among them, he informs us, that a ſtranger may travel ſecurely through their country, where he is faithfully eſcorted, and hoſpitably treated. The greateſt danger is from the *Haiduks*, or *Banditti*, of whom there are great numbers among the woods and caves of theſe dreadful mountains on the confines. There, ſays our author, a man ought to get himſelf eſcorted by a couple of theſe 'honeſt fellows;' for they are not capable of betraying him although a banditti; and their ſituation is commonly more apt to raiſe compaſſion than diffidence. They lead their life among the wolves, wandering from one precipice to another, expoſed to the ſeverity of the ſeaſons, and frequently languiſh in want of the neceſſaries of life, in the moſt hideous and ſolitary caverns. Yet they very ſeldom diſturb the tranquillity of others, and prove always faithful guides to travellers; the chief objects of their rapine being ſheep and oxen, to ſupply themſelves with food and ſhoes. Sometimes it happens, that, in their extreme neceſſity, the Haiduks go in parties to the ſhepherds cottages, and rudely demand ſomething to eat; which they do not fail to take immediately by force if the leaſt heſitation is made. It is ſeldom indeed that they meet with a refuſal, or with reſiſtance, as their reſolution and fury are well known to be equal to the ſavage life they lead. Four Haiduks are not afraid to aſſault a caravan of 15 or 20 Turks, and generally plunder and put them to flight. The greateſt part of the Haiduks look upon it as a meritorious action to ſhed the blood of the Turks; to which cruelty they are eaſily led by their natural ferocity, inflamed by a miſtaken zeal for religion, and the diſcourſes of their fanatic prieſts.

As to the Morlacchi themſelves, they are repreſented as open and ſincere to ſuch a degree, that they would be taken for ſimpletons in any other country; and by means of this quality they have been ſo often duped by the Italians, that *'the faith of an Italian* and *the faith of a dog*, are ſynonymous among the Morlacchi. They are very hoſpitable to ſtrangers; and their hoſpitality is equally conſpicuous among the rich and poor. The rich prepares a roaſted lamb or ſheep, and the poor with equal cordiality offers whatever he has; nor is this generoſity confined to ſtrangers, but generally extends itſelf to all who are in want. When a Morlack is on a journey, and comes to lodge at a friend's houſe, the eldeſt daughter of the family, or the new-married bride, if there happens to be one, receives and kiſſes him when he alights from his horſe or at the door of the houſe: but a foreigner is rarely favoured with theſe female civilities; on the contrary, the women, if they are young, hide themſelves and keep out of his way.

The Morlacchi in general have little notion of domeſtic economy, and readily conſume in a week as much as would be ſufficient for ſeveral months, whenever any occaſion of merriment preſents itſelf. A marriage, the holiday of the ſaint, protector of the family, the arrival of relations or friends, or any other joyful incident, conſumes of courſe all that there is to eat and to drink in the houſe. Yet the Morlack is a great economiſt in the uſe of his wearing-apparel; for rather than ſpoil his new cap, he takes it off, let it rain ever ſo hard, and goes bare-headed in the ſtorm. In the ſame manner he treats his ſhoes, if the road is dirty and they are not very old. Nothing but an abſolute impoſſibility hinders a Morlack from being punctual; and if he cannot

repay

repay the money he borrowed at the appointed time, he carries a ſmall preſent to his creditor, and requeſts a longer term. Thus it happens ſometimes, that, from term to term, and preſent to preſent, he pays double what he owed, without reflecting on it.

Friendſhip, that among us is ſo ſubject to change on the ſlighteſt motives, is laſting among the Morlacchi. They have even made it a kind of religious point, and tie the ſacred bond at the foot of the altar. The Sclavonian ritual contains a particular benediction for the ſolemn union of two male or two female friends in the preſence of the congregation. The male friends thus united are called *Pobratimi*, and the female *Poſeſtreme*, which mean half-brothers and half-ſiſters. Friendſhips between thoſe of different ſexes are not at this day bound with ſo much ſolemnity, though perhaps in more ancient and innocent ages it was alſo the cuſtom.

From theſe conſecrated friendſhips among the Morlacchi and other nations of the ſame origin, it ſhould ſeem that the *ſworn brothers* aroſe; a denomination frequent enough among the common people of Italy, and in many parts of Europe. The difference between theſe and the Pobratimi of Morlachia conſiſts not only in the want of the ritual ceremony, but in the deſign of the union itſelf. For, among the Morlacchi, the ſole view is reciprocal ſervice and advantage; but ſuch a brotherhood among the Italians is generally commenced by bad men, to enable them the more to hurt and diſturb ſociety. The duties of the Pobratimi are, to aſſiſt each other in every caſe of need or danger, to revenge mutual wrongs, and ſuch like. The enthuſiaſm is often carried ſo far as to riſk and even to loſe their life for the Pobratimi, although theſe ſavage friends are not celebrated like a Pylades. If diſcord happens to ariſe between two friends, it is talked of over all the country as a ſcandalous novelty; and there have been ſome examples of it of late years, to the great affliction of the old Morlacchi, who attribute the depravation of their countrymen to their intercourſe with the Italians. Wine and ſtrong liquors, of which the nation is beginning to make daily abuſe, will of courſe produce the ſame bad effects as among others.

But as the friendſhips of the Morlacchi are ſtrong and ſacred, ſo their quarrels are commonly unextinguiſhable. They paſs from father to ſon; and the mothers fail not to put their children in mind of their duty to revenge their father if he has had the misfortune to be killed, and to ſhow them often the bloody ſkirt and arms of the dead. And ſo deeply is revenge rooted in the minds of this nation, that all the miſſionaries in the world would not be able to eradicate it. A Morlack is naturally inclined to do good to his fellow-creatures, and is full of gratitude for the ſmalleſt benefit; but implacable if injured or inſulted.

A Morlack who has killed another of a powerful family, is commonly obliged to ſave himſelf by flight, and to keep out of the way for ſeveral years. If during that time he has been fortunate enough to eſcape the ſearch of his purſuers, and has got a ſmall ſum of money, he endeavours to obtain pardon and peace; and, that he may treat about the conditions in perſon, he aſks and obtains a ſafe conduct, which is faithfully maintained, though only verbally granted. Then he finds mediators; and, on the appointed day, the relations of the two hoſtile families are aſſembled, and the criminal is introduced, dragging himſelf along on his hands and feet, the muſket, piſtol, or cutlaſs, with which he committed the murder, hung about his neck; and while he continues in that humble poſture, one or more of the relations recites a panegyric on the dead, which ſometimes rekindles the flames of revenge, and puts the poor

proſtrate

proſtrate in no ſmall danger. It is the cuſtom in ſome places for the offended party to threaten the criminal, holding all kind of arms to his throat, and, after much intreaty, to conſent at laſt to accept of his ranſom. Theſe pacifications coſt dear in Albania; but the Morlacchi make up matters at a ſmall expence; and every where the buſineſs is concluded with a feaſt at the offender's charge.

The Morlacks, whether they happen to be of the Roman or of the Greek church, have very ſingular ideas about religion; and the ignorance of their teachers daily augments this monſtrous evil. They are as firmly perſuaded of the reality of witches, fairies, enchantments, nocturnal apparitions, and ſortileges, as if they had ſeen a thouſand examples of them. Nor do they make the leaſt doubt about the exiſtence of vampires; and attribute to them, as in Tranſylvania, the ſucking the blood of infants. Therefore, when a man dies ſuſpected of becoming a vampire, or *vukodlak*, as they call it, they cut his hams, and prick his whole body with pins; pretending, that after this operation he cannot walk about. There are even inſtances of Morlacchi, who, imagining that they may poſſibly thirſt for childrens' blood after death, intreat their heirs, and ſometimes oblige them to promiſe, to treat them as vampires when they die.

The boldeſt Haiduk would fly trembling from the apparition of a ſpectre, ghoſt, phantom, or ſuch like goblins as the heated imaginations of credulous and prepoſſeſſed people never fail to ſee. Nor are they aſhamed, when ridiculed for this terror; but anſwer, much in the words of Pindar; 'Fear that proceeds from ſpirits, cauſes even the ſons of the gods to fly.' The women, as may be naturally ſuppoſed, are a hundred times more timorous and viſionary than the men; and ſome of them, by frequently hearing themſelves called *witches*, actually believe they are ſo.

A moſt perfect diſcord reigns in Morlachia, as it generally does in other parts, between the Latin and Greek communion, which their reſpective prieſts fail not to foment, and tell a thouſand little ſcandalous ſtories of each other. The churches of the Latins are poor, but not very dirty: thoſe of the Greeks are equally poor, and ſhamefully ill kept. Our author has ſeen the curate of a Morlack village ſitting on the ground in the church-yard, to hear the confeſſion of women on their knees by his ſide: a ſtrange poſture indeed! but a proof of the innocent manners of thoſe good people, who have the moſt profound veneration for their ſpiritual paſtors, and a total dependence upon them; who, on their part, frequently make uſe of a diſcipline rather military, and correct the bodies of their offending flock with the cudgel. Perhaps this particular is carried to an abuſe as well as that of public penance, which they pretend to inflict after the manner of the ancient church. They moreover, through the ſilly credulity of thoſe poor mountaineers, draw illicit profits, by ſelling certain ſuperſtitious ſcrolls and other ſcandalous merchandiſe of that kind. They write in a capricious manner on the ſcrolls called *zapiz*, ſacred names which ought not to be trifled with, and ſometimes adding others very improperly joined. The virtues attributed to theſe zapiz are much of the ſame nature as thoſe which the Baſilians attributed to their monſtrouſly cut ſtones. The Morlacchi uſe to carry them ſewed to their caps, to cure or to prevent diſeaſes; and they alſo tie them for the ſame purpoſe to the horns of their oxen. The compoſers of this trumpery take every method to maintain the credit of their profitable trade, in ſpite of its abſurdity, and the frequent proofs of its inutility. And ſo great has their

their ſucceſs been, that not only the Morlacchi, but even the Turks near the borders, provide themſelves plentifully with zapiz from the Chriſtian prieſts, which not a little increaſes their income, as well as the reputation of the commodity. The Morlacchi have alſo much devotion, and many of the ignorant people in Italy have little leſs, to certain copper and ſilver coins of the low empire; or to Venetian cotemporary pieces, which paſs among them for medals of St. Helen; and they think they cure the epilepſy and ſuch like. They are equally fond of an Hungarian coin called *petizza*, which has the virgin and child on the reverſe: and one of theſe is a moſt acceptable preſent to a Morlack.

The bordering Turks not only keep with devotion the ſuperſtitious zapiz, but frequently bring preſents and cauſe maſſes to be celebrated to the images of the Virgin; which is doubtleſs in contradiction to the alcoran; yet when ſaluted, in the uſual manner in that country, by the name of Jeſus, they do not anſwer. Hence, when the Morlacchi, or other travellers, meet them on the confines, they do not ſay, *Huaglian Iſſus*, 'Jeſus be praiſed;' but, *Huaglian Bog*, 'God be praiſed.'

Innocence, and the natural liberty of paſtoral ages, are ſtill preſerved among the Morlacchi, or at leaſt many traces of them remain in the places fartheſt diſtant from our ſettlements. Pure cordiality of ſentiment is not there reſtrained by other regards, and diſplays itſelf without any diſtinction of circumſtances. A young handſome Morlack girl, who meets a man of her diſtrict on the road, kiſſes him affectionately, without the leaſt vicious or immodeſt thought; and our author has ſeen all the women and girls, all the young men and old, kiſſing one another as they came into the churchyard on a holiday; ſo that they looked as if they had been all belonging to one family. He has often obſerved the ſame thing on the road, and at the fairs in the maritime towns, where the Morlacchi came to ſell their commodities. In times of feaſting and merriment, beſide the kiſſes, ſome other little liberties are taken with the hands, which we would not reckon decent, but are not minded among them; and when they are told of it, they anſwer, it is only toying, and means nothing. From this toying, however, their amours often take their beginning, and frequently end ſeriouſly when the two lovers are once agreed. For it very rarely happens, in places far diſtant from the coaſt, that a Morlack carries off a girl againſt her will, or diſhonours her: and were ſuch attempts made, the young woman would, no doubt, be able to defend herſelf; the women in that country being generally very little leſs robuſt than the men. But the cuſtom is, for the woman herſelf to appoint the time and place of being carried off; and ſhe does ſo in order to extricate herſelf from other ſuitors, from whom ſhe may have received ſome love-token, ſuch as a braſs ring, a little knife, or ſuch like trifles. The Morlack women keep themſelves ſomewhat neat till they get a huſband; but after marriage they abandon themſelves totally to a loathſome dirtineſs, as if they intended to juſtify the contempt with which they are treated. Indeed it cannot be ſaid that even the young women have a grateful odour, as they are uſed to anoint their hair with butter, which ſoon becoming rancid exhales no agreeable effluvia.

[To be concluded in our next.]

BIOGRAPHICAL REGISTER *of eminent* PERSONS *deceaſed in* 1792: *Concluded from Page* 177.

ROBERT ADAM, Eſq.

ROBERT ADAM, a celebrated architect, was born in the year 1728, at the town of Kirkcaldy, in the county of Fife. He was the ſecond ſon of William Adam, eſq. of Maryburgh, an architect of diſtinguiſhed merit. He received his education in the univerſity of Edinburgh. The friendſhips which he formed in that ſeat of learning, were with men who have ſince been eminently diſtinguiſhed by their literary productions; among whom were Mr. David Hume, Dr. William Robertſon, Dr. Adam Smith, Dr. Adam Ferguſon, and Mr. John Home. As he advanced in life, he had the good fortune to enjoy the friendſhip and intimacy of Archibald duke of Argyle, Mr. Charles Townſhend, and William earl of Mansfield. To perfect his taſte in the ſcience to which he had devoted himſelf, and which was his father's profeſſion, he went to Italy, and there ſtudied, for ſome time, the magnificent remains of antiquity which ſtill adorn that country. He was of opinion, that the buildings of the ancients are, in architecture, what the works of nature are with reſpect to the other arts; ſerving as models for our imitation, and ſtandards of our judgment. Hence, thoſe who aſpire to eminence, either in the theory or practice of this art, find it neceſſary to ſtudy the remains of antiquity on the ſpot, in order to catch thoſe ideas of grandeur and beauty, which nothing elſe, perhaps, but ſuch actual obſervation, can ſuggeſt. Scarce any monuments, however, of Grecian or Roman architecture ſtill remain except *public* buildings; temples, baths, and amphitheatres, having proved the only works of ſolidity ſufficient to reſiſt the injuries of time, and to defy the violence of the barbarians. The *private* edifices, however ſplendid and elegant, in which the citizens of Athens and Rome reſided, have all periſhed; few veſtiges remaining, even of thoſe innumerable villas with which Italy was crowded; although, in erecting them, the Romans laviſhed the ſpoils and riches of the world. Mr. Adam, therefore, conſidered the deſtruction of theſe buildings with particular regret; ſome incidental alluſions in the ancient poets, and occaſional deſcriptions in their hiſtorians, conveying ideas of their magnificence, which aſtoniſh the artiſts of the preſent age. He conceived his knowledge of architecture to be imperfect, unleſs he ſhould be able to add the obſervation of a *private* edifice of the ancients to his ſtudy of their *public* works. He therefore formed the ſcheme of viſiting the ruins of the emperor Diocleſian's palace, at Spalatro, in Venetian Dalmatia. To that end, having prevailed on M. Cleriſſeau, a French artiſt, to accompany him, and engaged two draughtſmen to aſſiſt him in the execution of his deſign, he ſailed from Venice, in June 1757, on his intended expedition; and, in five weeks, he ſucceeded in the object of this voyage, greatly to his ſatisfaction.

In the year 1762, Mr. Adam was appointed architect to their majeſties. In 1764, he publiſhed the reſult of his reſearches at Spalatro, in one volume large folio. It is entitled 'Ruins of the Palace of the emperor Diocleſian, at Spalatro in Dalmatia, by R. Adam, F. R. S. F. S. A. Architect to the King and to the Queen.' It is enriched with ſeventy-one plates, all executed in the moſt maſterly manner; the engravings of the architecture, in particular, frequently ſtriking the eye with uncommon beauty. —In a word, this work deſervedly ranks with the celebrated Ruins of Balbec and Palmyra publiſhed by Mr. Robert Wood, and with the Antiqui-

ties of Athens publiſhed by Mr. James Stuart.

In 1768, Mr. Adam reſigned his office of architect to their majeſties; it being incompatible with a ſeat in parliament, and he being this year elected repreſentative for the county of Kinroſs. By this time Mr. Adam, in conjunction with his brother James Adam, eſq. had been much employed by the nobility and gentry, both in conſtructing many noble modern edifices, and in embelliſhing many ancient manſions; and, in 1773, they firſt began to publiſh their joint productions. The firſt number was entitled, 'The Works in Architecture of Robert and James Adam, eſquires. No. 1. Containing Part of the Deſigns of Sion Houſe, a magnificent ſeat of his grace the duke of Northumberland, in the county of Middleſex.' In their preface to this work, meſſieurs Adam boldly diſclaim all ſervility of imitation. 'The novelty and variety,' they obſerve, 'of the following deſigns, will, we flatter ourſelves, not only excuſe but juſtify our conduct in communicating them to the world. We have not trod in the paths of others, nor derived aid from their labours. In the works which we have had the honour to execute, we have not only met with the approbation of our employers, but even with the imitation of other artiſts, to ſuch a degree, as, in ſome meaſure, to have brought about, in this country, a kind of revolution in the whole ſyſtem of this uſeful and elegant art.' If this language be thought too aſſuming by ſome, it will be allowed, however, to be very juſt, by all who recollect, in the interior decoration of houſes, the maſſive entablature, the ponderous compartment ceiling, &c. now univerſally exploded, and who prefer the beautiful variety of light moulding, gracefully formed, delicately enriched, and arranged with propriety and ſkill. In fine, in many of the plans exhibited in this number, there is an air of grandeur and beauty, united to a freedom of invention, which is the great characteriſtic of genius.

In 1774, appeared the ſecond number, containing part of the deſigns of the late earl of Mansfield's villa at Kenwood in the county of Middleſex. In 1775, appeared the third number, containing the deſigns of Luton Park Houſe, one of the ſeats of the late John earl of Bute; and, in 1776, was publiſhed the fourth number, containing ſome of their works at Whitehall, Edinburgh, &c. That noble improvement of the metropolis, the *Adelphi*, will long remain an honour to the two *brothers*. The hiſtory of that undertaking is too well known to be repeated here.

Mr. Robert Adam, long the ornament of his profeſſion, died at his houſe, in Albemarle-ſtreet, London, on the 3d of March 1792. His death was occaſioned by the burſting of a blood veſſel in his ſtomach. His remains were interred, on the 10th of the ſame month, in the ſouth aiſle of Weſtminſter Abbey. The funeral was private, being attended only by a ſelect number of his friends; but the pall was ſupported by the duke of Buccleugh, the earls of Coventry and Lauderdale, viſcount Stormont, lord Frederick Campbell, and Mr. Pulteney.

The many elegant buildings, public and private, erected in various parts of the two kingdoms by Mr. Adam, will remain laſting monuments of his taſte and genius; and the natural ſuavity of his manners, joined to the excellence of his moral character, had endeared him to a numerous circle of the moſt reſpectable friends. It is ſomewhat remarkable, that the arts ſhould be deprived at the ſame time of two of their greateſt ornaments, ſir Joſhua Reynolds and Mr. Adam; and it is difficult to ſay which of them excelled moſt in his particular profeſſion. Sir Joſhua introduced a new and ſuperior ſtyle of portrait painting. It is equally true that Mr. Adam introduced a total change in the architecture of his coun-

try; and his fertile genius in elegant ornament was not confined to the decoration of buildings, but has been diffuſed into almoſt every branch of manufacture. His talents extended beyond the line of his own profeſſion: he diſplayed, in his numerous drawings in landſcape, a luxuriance of compoſition, and an effect of light and ſhadow, which have ſcarce ever been equalled. To the laſt moment of his life he diſplayed an increaſing vigour of genius and refinement of taſte; for, in the ſpace of one year preceding his death, he deſigned eight great public works, beſide twenty-five private buildings, ſo various in their ſtyle, and ſo beautiful in their compoſition, that they have been allowed by the beſt judges, ſufficient of themſelves to eſtabliſh his fame unrivalled as an artiſt.

Sir George Pocock, K. B.

Sir George Pocock was one of thoſe excellent naval officers, whoſe hiſtory is to be found in the annals of his country, and on which, therefore, it is unneceſſary to expatiate here. He was born on the 6th of March 1706, being the ſon of the Rev. Thomas Pocock, M. A. F. R. S. and chaplain to Greenwich hoſpital, and of Joice, his wife, daughter of James Maſter, eſq. of Eaſt Langton, in Kent, whoſe other daughter, Margaret, married captain George Byng, afterward admiral, and viſcount Torrington. At twelve years of age, Mr. Pocock began his profeſſion in the navy, under his uncle ſir George Byng; and, in 1718, he ſerved on board the fleet, in the memorable victory over the Spaniards off Sicily. He went through the different ranks of his profeſſion with diſtinguiſhed aſſiduity. In 1748, he conducted himſelf with great gallantry and prudence, as commodore, off Martinico. In February 1754, he had a conſiderable command in the Eaſt Indies, where he continued till, in 1758, he commanded the Britiſh fleet there as admiral in chief, and, with an inferior force, gained three victories over the French, for which the thanks of the Eaſt India Company were voted to him in 1759. He was afterward engaged in ſome ſevere but ſucceſsful actions, and returned to England, with much honour, in 1760. The next year, he was the naval commander in chief in the ſucceſsful expedition againſt the Havannah. Through diſguſt at the appointment of ſir Hugh Palliſer to the government of Greenwich hoſpital, he relinquiſhed his half pay. He died at his houſe in Charles-ſtreet, Berkeley-ſquare, on the third of April 1792, and was interred in the family vault at Twickenham, near the remains of his lady, by whom he left one ſon, George Pocock, eſq. F. R. S. and a daughter married to the preſent earl Poulett.

Lord Rodney,

Of this diſtinguiſhed naval officer, who was born in February 1718, we have already given memoirs and a portrait in the Supplement to our 67th Volume, which bring down his ſervices to the concluſion of the year 1780. He was then ſir George Brydges Rodney, K. B. and Baronet.

On the 3d of May 1781, admiral Rodney, in conjunction with general Vaughan, took the iſland of St. Euſtatia, with all its dependencies, with 150 ſail of merchant ſhips richly laden, one frigate, and an amazing quantity of ſtores and merchandiſe, which had been collected there for the ſupply of the French and Americans; and a ſixty-gun ſhip, and a frigate, having left St. Euſtatia with a convoy for Europe, about thirty-ſix hours before the arrival of the admiral, he detached two ſhips of the line and a frigate in purſuit of them, and the whole were taken. The capture of the *merchandiſe*, however, on the iſland of St. Euſtatia, was productive of a ſeries of litigation, which involved the admiral in difficulties which terminated only with his life. In May following, his majeſty ſettled annuities of 2000l. on ſir George

Brydges Rodney, 1000l. upon his eldeſt ſon captain Rodney, 500l. on lady Rodney, and 100l. on each of his other children, as a reward for the great ſervices which he had rendered his country. Toward the cloſe of the year, he returned to Great Britain, on account of his bad ſtate of health. On the 6th of November, he was appointed vice-admiral of Great Britain, and lieutenant of the navies and ſeas thereof, in the room of lord Hawke, deceaſed.

His health being much reſtored, admiral Rodney returned to his command in the Weſt Indies, early in the year 1782. On the 9th of April, he had a partial and indeciſive engagement with the French fleet commanded by the count de Graſſe, over whom, on the 12th following, he gained a complete victory. The particulars of this glorious action, which effectually prevented the meditated attack of the French and Spaniards on the iſland of Jamaica, we have already fully related *. Both houſes of parliament, on this happy occaſion, voted their thanks to the gallant admiral, a third time; his majeſty, on the 19th of June, was pleaſed to create him a peer of Great Britain, by the title of Baron Rodney, of Rodney Stoke, in the county of Somerſet; and, on the 30th of June 1783, the houſe of commons, in conſequence of a meſſage from the king, voted 2000l. per annum to his lordſhip, and his two next ſucceſſors in the barony of Rodney, payable from the 12th of April 1782. This was the laſt of his lordſhip's naval ſervices. He had been recalled by the new adminiſtration under the marquis of Rockingham, before the intelligence of this great event arrived: admiral Hugh Pigot, who had been appointed to ſucceed him, had not yet ſailed: nevertheleſs, it was not deemed expedient to reſcind this appointment; a circumſtance, which brought down a profuſion of cenſure on the new miniſters. The new commander was unqueſtionably a good officer; but nothing farther was achieved in the Weſt Indies, from the arrival of admiral Pigot, till the concluſion of the peace of 1783.

In the memorable affair of the regency bill, at the beginning of the year 1789, lord Rodney concurred in oppoſing the meaſures propoſed by adminiſtration for ſupplying the defect of the executive power. He died on the 24th of May 1792; leaving iſſue, by his firſt lady, an only ſon, George Rodney, a captain in the guards, who ſucceeded him in the title, and is married to the ſecond daughter and coheireſs of the right honourable Thomas Harley. By his ſecond lady, he left iſſue two ſons (the eldeſt of whom, John Rodney, is a captain in the royal navy) and four daughters.

The national gratitude to lord Rodney did not terminate with his death. On the 31ſt of May 1793, the houſe of commons voted, that the penſion granted to the late lord Rodney, ſhould be continued, in perpetuity, to his deſcendants inheriting the barony; and, on the 17th of June, they further voted a monument, with a ſuitable inſcription thereon, to be erected in the cathedral of St. Paul, as a teſtimony of the ſenſe which the nation entertained of his great and ſignal ſervices.

JOHN SMEATON, F. R. S.

JOHN SMEATON, a celebrated engineer, was born the 28th of May 1724, at Auſthorpe, near Leeds, in Yorkſhire, in a houſe built by his grandfather, and where his family have reſided ever ſince.

The ſtrength of his underſtanding, and the originality of his genius, appeared at an early age. His playthings were not the baubles of children, but the tools with which men work; and he appeared to have greater entertainment in ſeeing the

* See our Magazine for May and June 1782.

men

men in the neighbourhood work, and aſking them queſtions, than in any thing elſe. One day he was ſeen, to the diſtreſs of his family, on the top of his father's barn, fixing up ſomething like a windmill. Another time, he attended ſome men, who were fixing a pump at a neighbouring village; and obſerving them cut off a piece of bored pipe, he was ſo lucky as to procure it, and he actually made with it a working pump that raiſed water. Theſe anecdotes refer to circumſtances that happened while he was in petticoats, and moſt likely before he attained his ſixth year.

About his fourteenth or fifteenth year, he had made for himſelf an engine to turn roſe work, and made ſeveral preſents to his friends of boxes in ivory and wood, turned by him in that way.

In the year 1742, his friends could not but view his works with aſtoniſhment: he forged his iron and ſteel, and melted his metal; he had tools of every ſort, for working in wood, ivory, and metals. He had made a lathe, by which he had cut a perpetual ſcrew in braſs, a thing little known at that day, and which is ſuppoſed to have been the invention of Mr. Henry Hindley, of York, who was a man of a very communicative diſpoſition, a great lover of mechanics, and of the moſt fertile genius. Mr. Smeaton ſoon became acquainted with him, and they ſpent many nights at Mr. Hindley's houſe till daylight, converſing on thoſe ſubjects.

Thus had Mr. Smeaton, by the ſtrength of his genius, and indefatigable induſtry, acquired, at the age of eighteen, an extenſive ſet of tools, and the art of working in moſt of the mechanical trades, without the aſſiſtance of any maſter, and which he continued to do a part of every day, when at the place where his tools were; and few could work better.

Mr. Smeaton's father was an attorney, and deſirous of bringing up his ſon to the ſame profeſſion. Mr. Smeaton, therefore, came to London in 1742, and attended the courts in Weſtminſter Hall; but finding (as his conſtant expreſſion was) that the law did not ſuit *the bent of his genius*, he wrote a ſtrong memorial to his father on that ſubject, whoſe good ſenſe from that moment left his ſon to purſue the bent of his own genius.

Early in 1750, Mr. Smeaton had lodgings in Great Turnſtile, Holborn. He was then about commencing Mathematical Inſtrument-maker, and ſoon became acquainted with moſt of the ingenious men of that time.

In 1751, he began a courſe of experiments, to try a machine of his invention to meaſure a ſhip's way at ſea. He alſo made two voyages, in company with Dr. Knight, to try this machine, and a compaſs of his own invention and making, and which was made magnetical by Dr. Knight's artificial magnets. The laſt of theſe voyages was in the Fortune ſloop of war, commanded by captain Alexander Campbell.

In 1753, he was elected Fellow of the Royal Society. The number of papers publiſhed in their Tranſactions will ſhew the univerſality of his genius and knowledge. In 1754, he made a voyage to Holland, and by walking on foot, or travelling in the *tranſcoutes*, he got acquainted with moſt of the works of art there, and in the Low Countries. In 1759, he was honoured by the Royal Society with their gold medal, for his paper entitled, 'An Experimental Enquiry concerning the natural Powers of Water and Wind to turn Mills, and other Machines depending on a circular Motion.' This paper, he ſays, was the reſult of experiments made on working models in the years 1752 and 1753, but not communicated to the ſociety till 1759, before which time he had an opportunity of putting the effect of theſe experiments into real practice, in a variety of caſes, and for various purpoſes, ſo as to aſſure the ſociety he had found them to anſwer.

Here we ſee Mr. Smeaton, in his 27th

27th and 28th year, make models, and experiments therewith, by which the powers of wind and water are found to be able to do more, by at leaſt one third, than it was known they could do before. This improvement, without any other, ſhews the value of his life to this country. To enable mills, and all other circular motions depending on water and wind, to do at leaſt one third more buſineſs than they did before, is to this country (greatly depending on its manufactures) a benefit beyond calculation.

Mr. Smeaton made conſiderable improvements in the air pump. He conſtructed one on ſuch a principle, as to be able to rarefy air a thouſand times; whereas the common air-pumps, eſteemed good in their kind, and in complete order, never rarefied it above one hundred and forty times. His air-pump had only one barrel, was worked with much more eaſe than any other, and acted alſo as a condenſing engine, by the very ſimple apparatus of turning a cock: ſo that it was a univerſal engine, for ſhowing any effect ariſing from an alteration in the denſity or ſpring of the air.

In December 1755, the Eddyſtone Lighthouſe was burnt down. The proprietors being deſirous of rebuilding it in the moſt ſubſtantial manner, enquired of the earl of Macclefield, then preſident of the Royal Society, who he thought the moſt proper perſon to rebuild it. His lordſhip recommended Mr. Smeaton.

Mr. Smeaton undertook the work, and completed it in the ſummer of 1759. Of this, he has given an ample deſcription, in a volume publiſhed in 1791. This work appears to be, in a great meaſure, a hiſtory of four years of his life, in which the originality of his genius, his great alacrity, induſtry, and perſeverance, are fully diſplayed.

Though Mr. Smeaton completed the building of the Eddyſtone Lighthouſe in 1759, (a work that does him ſo much credit) yet it appears he did not ſoon get into full buſineſs as a civil engineer; for, in 1764, while in Yorkſhire, he offered himſelf a candidate for one of the receiverſhips of the Derwentwater eſtate; and, on the 31ſt of December, in that year, he was appointed, at a full board of Greenwich Hoſpital, in a manner highly flattering to himſelf; when two other perſons, powerfully ſupported, were candidates for the employment. In this appointment he was very happy, by the aſſiſtance and abilities of his partner Mr. Walton, one of the preſent receivers, who taking upon himſelf the management and accounts, left Mr. Smeaton leiſure and opportunity to exert his abilities on public works, as well as to make many improvements in the Mills, and in the eſtates of Greenwich Hoſpital. By the year 1775, he had ſo much buſineſs, as a civil engineer, that he wiſhed to reſign this appointment, and would have done it then, had not his friends, the late Mr. Stuart, the hoſpital ſurveyor, and Mr. Ibbetſon, their ſecretary, prevailed upon him to continue in the office about two years longer.

Mr. Smeaton having now got into full buſineſs as a civil engineer, our limits will not permit us to enumerate the variety of concerns in which he was engaged. A few only can be mentioned: he made the river Calder navigable; a work that required great ſkill and judgment, owing to the very impetuous floods in that river. He planned and attended the execution of the great Canal in Scotland, for conveying the trade of the country, either to the Atlantic or German Ocean; and having brought it to the place originally intended, he declined a handſome yearly ſalary, in order that he might attend to the multiplicity of his other buſineſs.

On the opening of the great arch at London-bridge, the excavation around and under the ſterlings was ſo conſiderable, that the bridge was thought to be in great danger of falling. He was then in Yorkſhire,

and

and was ſent for by expreſs, and arrived with the utmoſt diſpatch, on a Saturday morning, when the apprehenſions of the bridge falling were ſo general, that few would paſs over or under it. He applied himſelf immediately to examine it, and to ſound about the ſterlings as minutely as he could, and the committee being called together, adopted his advice, which was, to repurchaſe the ſtones that had been taken from the middle pier, then lying in Moorfields, and to throw them into the river to guard the ſterlings *. Nothing ſhews the apprehenſions of the bridge falling, more than the alacrity with which his advice was purſued. The ſtones were repurchaſed that day. Horſes, carts, and barges were got ready, and they began the work on Sunday morning. Thus Mr. Smeaton, in all probability, ſaved London Bridge from falling, and ſecured it till more effectual methods could be taken.

In the ſummer of 1771, he was engaged with Mr. John Holmes of the Strand, in a joint purchaſe of the works for ſupplying Deptford and Greenwich with water. This undertaking had been, for a long ſeries of years, a loſing purſuit to all former proprietors. Under the management of Mr. Smeaton, however, it was brought to be of general uſe to thoſe it was intended for, and moderately beneficial to himſelf and his partner.

The vaſt variety of mills Mr. Smeaton conſtructed, ſo greatly to the ſatisfaction and advantage of the owners, will ſhew the great uſe he made of his experiments in 1752 and 1753; and indeed he ſcarcely truſted to theory in any caſe where he could have an opportunity to inveſtigate it by experiment; and for this he built a ſteam engine at Auſthorpe, and made experiments thereon, purpoſely to aſcertain the power of Newcomen's ſteam engine, which he improved and brought to a far greater degree of certainty, both in its conſtruction and powers, than it was before.

Mr. Smeaton, during many years of his life, was a conſtant attendant on parliament, his opinion being continually called for; and here his ſtrength of judgment and perſpicuity of expreſſion had its full diſplay. It was his conſtant cuſtom, when applied to plan or ſupport any meaſure, to make himſelf fully acquainted with it, and ſee its merits before he would be engaged in it. By this caution, added to the clearneſs of his deſcription, and the integrity of his heart, he ſeldom failed having the bill he ſupported carried into an act of parliament. No one was heard with more attention, nor had any one ever more confidence placed in his teſtimony. In the courts of law, he had ſeveral compliments paid him from the bench by lord Mansfield and others, for the new light he threw on difficult ſubjects.

About the year 1785, Mr. Smeaton's health began to decline, and he then took the reſolution to endeavour to avoid all the buſineſs he could, ſo that he might have leiſure to publiſh an account of his inventions and works, which was certainly the firſt wiſh of his heart; for he has often ſaid, that he thought he could not render ſo much ſervice to his country, as by doing that. He got only his account of the Eddyſtone Lighthouſe completed, and ſome preparations to his intended Treatiſe on Mills; for he could not reſiſt the ſolicitations of his friends in various works; and Mr. Aubert, whom he greatly loved and reſpected, being choſen chairman of Ramſgate Harbour, prevailed upon him to accept the place of engineer to

* This method of ſtopping the impetuous ravages of water, he had practiſed before with ſucceſs, on the river Calder. In the neighbourhood of Wakefield, a great flood had made a conſiderable paſſage over the land: this he ſtopped at the bank of the river, by throwing in a quantity of large rough ſtones, which (the ſand and other materials, waſhed down by the river, filling up their interſtices) became a barrier to keep the river in its uſual courſe.

that

that harbour; and to their joint efforts, the public is chiefly indebted, for the improvements that have been made there within these few years; which fully appears in a report that Mr. Smeaton gave in to the board of trustees in 1791, which they immediately published. In 1792, Mr. Smeaton being at Austhorpe, walking in his garden, on the 16th of September, was struck with the palsy, and died the 28th of October. In his illness Mr. Holmes had several letters from him, signed with his name, but written and signed by another's pen. The diction of them shewed the strength of his mind had not left him.—In one, written the 26th of September, after minutely describing his health and feelings, he says, 'in consequence of the foregoing, I conclude myself nine tenths dead, and the greatest favour the Almighty can do me (as I think) will be to complete the other part; but as it is likely to be a lingering illness, it is only in his power to say when that is likely to happen.'

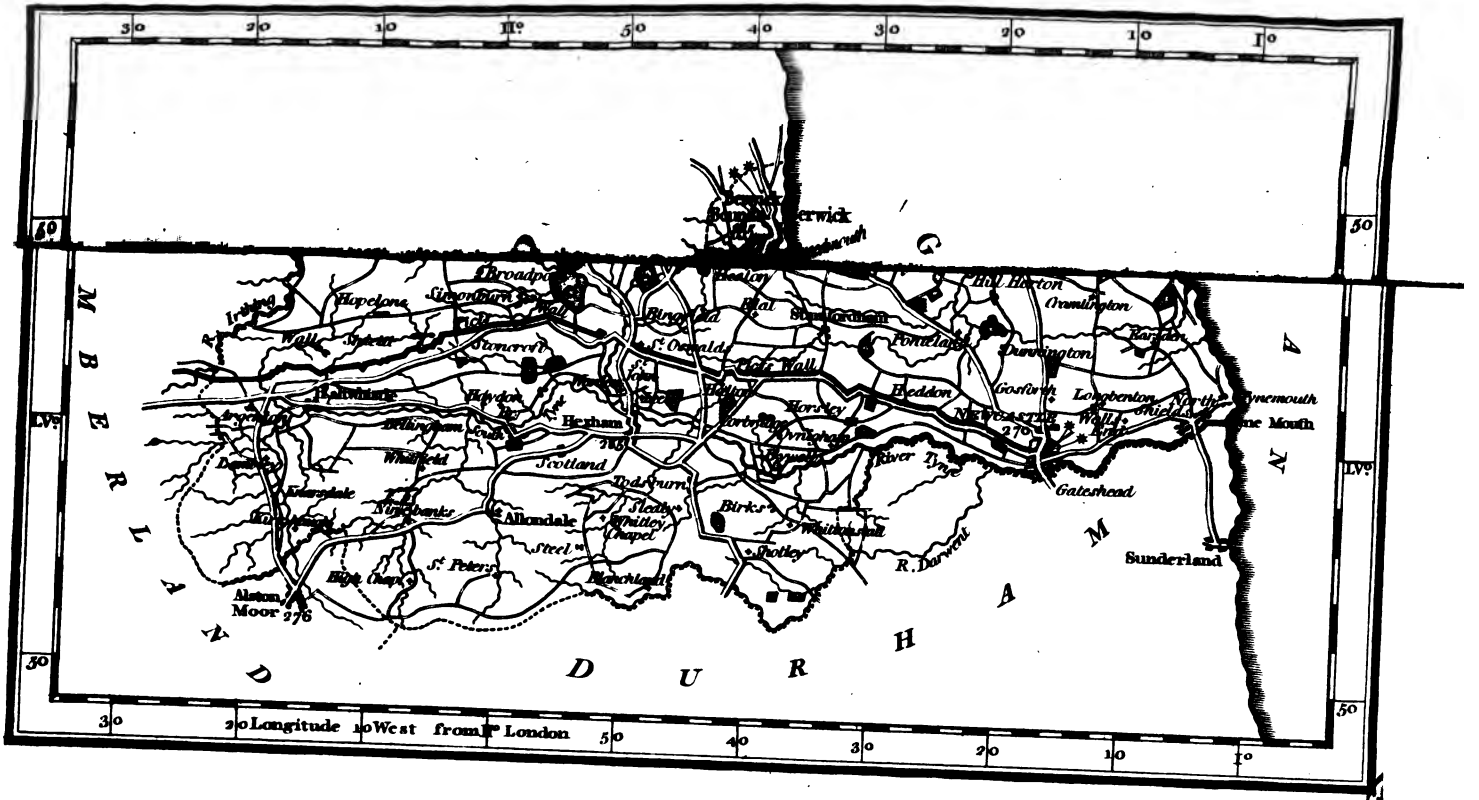
Mr. Smeaton had a warmth of expression, that might appear to those who did not know him well, to border on harshness; but those more intimately acquainted with him, knew it arose from the intense application of his mind, which was always in the pursuit of truth, or engaged in investigating difficult subjects. He would sometimes break out hastily, when any thing was said that did not tally with his ideas; and he would not give up any thing he argued for, till his mind was convinced by sound reasoning. In all the social duties of life he was exemplary. He was a most affectionate husband, a good father, a zealous friend, always ready to assist those he respected, and often before it was pointed out to him in what way he could serve them. He was a lover and encourager of merit wherever he found it; and many men are in a great measure indebted for their present situation to his assistance and advice. As a companion, he was always entertaining and instructive; and none could spend their time in his company without improvement.

A Curious Instance of PATRIOTISM *in an* IRISH MALEFACTOR.

ON the 3d of June 1734, one Michael Carmody, a journeyman weaver, was executed in the county of Cork, in Ireland. His branch of business had been long in a very declining way, owing to the wearing of cottons, which was highly destructive to the woollen manufacture, and in general injurious to the kingdom. The criminal was dressed in cotton; and not only the hangman, but the gallows, was decorated with cotton too. When Carmody was brought to the place of execution, his whole thoughts were turned upon the distresses of his country; and instead of making use of his last moments with the priest, the poor fellow addressed the surrounding multitude in the following extraordinary oration: 'Give ear, O good people, to the words of a dying sinner. I confess I have been guilty of many crimes that necessity obliged me to commit; which starving condition I was in, I am well assured, was occasioned by the scarcity of money that has proceeded from the great discouragement of our woollen manufactures.

'Therefore, good Christians, consider, that if you go on to suppress your own goods by wearing such cottons as I am now clothed in, you will bring your country into misery, which will consequently swarm with such unhappy malefactors as your present object is, and the blood of every miserable felon that will hang, after this warning from the gallows, will lie at your doors.

'And if you have any regard for the prayers of an expiring mortal, I beg you will not buy of the hangman the cotton garments that now adorn the


Longitude West from London
NORTHUMBERLAND
DURHAM
Berwick
Throaldpool
Hepeslone
Simonburn
Wall
Stanerton
Hallington
Hexham
Scotland
Whitfield
Allendale
Alston Moor 276
St. Peters
Steel
Blanchland
Todburn
Whitley Chapel
Birks
Whitchester
Hotley
R. Derwent
River Tyne
Gateshead
NEWCASTLE
Wall's End
Tynemouth
North Shields
Cullercoats
Sunderland
Hilton
Ormiston
Durrington
Gosforth
Longbenton
Heddon
Horsley
Ponteland
Stamfordham
Matfen
Ryal
Bingfield
Whalton
Kirkharle
Kirkwhelpington
Bellingham
Dunterley
Kielder
Kielderside
Ninebanks
Hareshaw
Hareshaw Head
Hedley
Hedley Wall
Throaldpool
Lanton
Lanton Wall
Spital
Spital Tongues
Tweed
Tweed R.
Tweedmouth
Berwick
Berwick Bay
Spittal
Ord
Ord Hill
Mal. Stanton
Hill Morton
Cramlington
Ranton
Lat. 55
Lat. 54
Lat. 50
Lat. 50
Lat. 50

the gallows, becauſe I can't reſt quiet in my grave if I *ſhould ſee* the very things worn that brought me to miſery, thievery, and this untimely end; all which I pray of the gentry to hinder their children and ſervants, for their own characters ſakes, though they have no tenderneſs for their country, becauſe none will hereafter wear cottons, but oyſter-women, criminals, whores, huckſters, and common hangmen.'

Perhaps, ſentiments of a more patriotic nature could not have been uttered by a Sydney or a Ruſſell, than what were expreſſed in the coarſe unſtudied harangue of this unfortunate malefactor.

An Account of NORTHUMBERLAND: *With a neat and accurate* MAP *of that County.*

NORTHUMBERLAND received its name from being ſituated to the north of the Humber. In the Saxon heptarchy it was a part of the kingdom of the Northumbrians, which contained not only the county now called Northumberland, but alſo Yorkſhire, Lancaſhire, Durham, Cumberland, and Weſtmorland. It is ſeated in the extremity of England next to Scotland, and is bounded on the eaſt by the German ocean; on the ſouth by the biſhopric of Durham; on the weſt and ſouth-weſt by Cumberland; and on the north-weſt and north by Scotland, from which it is ſeparated by the river Tweed. It extends about ſeventy miles in length from north to ſouth, and fifty in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It contains twelve market-towns, and 460 pariſhes. It lies in the dioceſe of Durham, and ſends eight members to parliament.

The air of this county is not ſo cold as might be imagined from the latitude in which it lies; for its ſituation between two ſeas, in the narroweſt part of England, gives it the advantage of having the cold moderated by the vapours of each; and for this reaſon the ſnow ſeldom lies long in Northumberland, except on the tops of high hills. The air is extremely healthful; and the people, who generally live to a great age, are ſeldom afflicted with ſickneſs. The ſoil is various; the eaſtern part fruitful, having very good wheat and moſt ſorts of corn, with rich meadows on the banks of the rivers; but the weſtern part is generally barren, it being moſtly heathy and mountainous. The ſouth-eaſt part abounds with pit-coal; the ſouth-weſt angle has very rich lead mines, but very little wood. The county is well watered by rivers, the principal of which are the Tyne, Tweed, and Coquet. The former has two arms at a great diſtance from each other, but are united a little above Hexham. South Tyne riſes in the north-eaſt edge of Cumberland, but ſoon entering Northumberland, bends toward the eaſt. North Tyne has its ſource in the weſtern part of Northumberland, called Tyne-dale, then running to the ſouth-eaſt, it receives the river Reed, and joins South Tyne, near Hexham, whence it runs eaſtward by Newcaſtle into the German ocean. The Tweed is the boundary between this county and Scotland, in the latter of which it riſes, and having entered Northumberland, purſues its courſe to the north-eaſt, till it reaches the German ocean at Berwick. The Coquet riſes on the weſtern border of the county, near Scotland, and taking a winding courſe in an eaſtern direction, diſcharges itſelf into the German ocean, oppoſite the little iſland which bears its name. Alnwick is the county-town; but the largeſt and richeſt is Newcaſtle.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, September 1793.

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	29,88	53,5	62	46,5	5	SW 1	. chiefly gentle rain : much rain
	2	29,76	58	64	48,5	5	SSW 2	rain. chiefly fair. leſs cloudy night
2	7	29,69	55,5	63	49	4	WSW 2	: fine
	2	29,62	63,5	66	44	2	WSW 2	. windy night
3	7	29,62	52	63	46	3	WSW 3	
	2	29,80	63	65	39,5	3	W 2	
4	7	30,03	49	61	44,5	1	W 1	
	2	30,08	60,5	62,5	40	3	W 1	. little rain at night. fine
5	7	30,12	46	58	46	2	W 1	hazy. wind NW
N	2	30,12	57,5	61	41	4	NW 1	
6	7	30,08	50,5	59,5	46,5	5	NW 1	. fine
	2	30,07	58	61,5	40	3	NW 1	. rain at times. fine night
7	7	30,22	42,5	55	44 5	2	NW 1	hazy
	2	30,29	58	59	40	1	W 1	: cloudy
8	7	30,37	55	60	48	5	WSW 1	
	2	30,37	64	64	45	4	W 1	. fine night
9	7	30,34	56,5	63	48	5	W 1	
	2	30,30	62,5	64	42,5	5	WNW 1	
10	7	30,18	55	62,5	47,5	5	W 1	. leſs cloudy
	2	30,13	65,5	66	46	5	WNW 1	. wind N
11	7	30,13	50	60,5	47	h	N 1	
	2	30,09	62	63,5	55	4	W 1	. fine
12	7	30,03	52	60	54,5	f	NW 0	. fine
	2	30,00	66	65,5	49	2	E 1	: cloudy. little rain
13	7	29,90	59,5	64,5	57,5	6	E 1	much rain but fine at times
	2	29,86	64	66	50,5	4	S 1	. gentle ſhowers
14	7	29,82	59,5	64	57	3	SSW 1	hazy
	2	29,74	65	65,5	49	3	SSW 2	. exceſſive rain at night : chiefly fair
15	7	29,45	60	65,5	55	5	SSW 1	little rain at times : fine
	2	29,54	63,5	66,5	46	2	WSW 1	. cloudy eve. little rain
16	7	29,60	54,5	60,5	52,5	3	SW 1	hazy
	2	29,73	61	64 5	48	4	NW 1	. cloudleſs night but hazy
17	7	30,01	50,5	60,5	50,5	2	W 1	hazy : cloudy
	2	30,02	62,5	63,5	48	5	S 2	. much rain at eve and night
18	7	29,80	61	65	57	5	SSW 1	. little rain at times
	2	29,82	65	66,5	54	5	SW 1	gentle rain. fair night
19	7	30,14	52,5	60,5	52	4	N 1	. more cloudy
F	2	30,18	56,5	62	49,5	5	N 1	
20	7	30,17	52	60	53	5	N 2	. little wet. ſhower : fine
	2	30,18	58	61	46,5	3	N 3	. leſs wind
21	7	30,20	47	57	50	1	N 1	. frequent ſhowers : hail
	2	30,18	53	58	50	3	NE 2	. ſhowers : cloudy and little rain
22	7	29,90	46,5	56,5	51,5	5	N 2	. chiefly gentle rain
	2	29,72	51	58	50	5	N 2	gentle rain. chiefly fair
23	7	29,59	45	55,5	51	5	N 1	. fine. cloudy : little rain
	2	29,67	49	56	49,5	5	S 1	much gentle rain. fine night
24	7	30,02	47	55,5	52	4	SW 1	
	2	30,11	57,5	58	46	4	SW 1	. gentle rain at times
25	7	30,26	48	56,5	52	2	NE 1	foggy
	2	30,34	59	60	46,5	3	NNW 1	. clear night
26	7	30,49	45	56	51,5	f	NNW 0	. fine
	2	30,45	54	58,5	49,5	3	NE 1	
27	7	30,45	44	55	52	2	E 1	foggy
	2	30,40	57	59,5	48,5	1	E 1	
28	7	30,25	43	57	53	2	ENE 1	hazy
	2	30,11	59	61	49	2	ENE 1	
29	7	29,83	49	56	54,5	h	ENE 1	. cloudy : fine
	2	29,74	60	61	47	3	S 2	
30	7	29,74	52,5	60	51	4	SSW 2	
	2	29,82	52,5	61,5	45	4	WSW 1	: drizzling rain

Observations *on the* Diseases *in* September 1793.

THE ſmallpox increaſed in frequency during this month, and were almoſt univerſally confluent, but did not on the whole prove very fatal. The hooping-cough was likewiſe common, but rather mild. New-born infants were more than uſual affected with the thruſh, and likewiſe with ſlight catarrhs, both of which yielded very readily to the accuſtomed remedies. Agues were likewiſe common, but their origin could in general be traced to a reſidence in a low and marſhy ſituation in the country; they did not prove obſtinate. Peripneumonic and pleuretic affections were rather frequent toward the middle of the month, but were not ſevere, and yielded readily to bleeding and antiphlogiſtic remedies. The croup, which had been dormant for ſeveral months, again prevailed: as this is a diſeaſe which ſcarcely admits of a cure unleſs in its early ſtage, and as from the mildneſs of the ſymptoms on its firſt attack, it occaſions no apprehenſions to perſons unaccuſtomed thereto, it may not be improper to give ſome account of it. Cold ſeems to be the prediſpoſing cauſe to this diſeaſe, which acts more powerfully when united with moiſture: it is met with moſt frequently in low and marſhy ſituations, particularly in the neighbourhood of the ſea, and more eſpecially if open to the eaſt, or north; it does not appear to be contagious; and it very rarely attacks infants at the breaſt, or children above ten years of age, but between theſe periods; and the nearer they are to the time of weaning, the more liable are they to the diſeaſe. It makes its attack, in general, with the common ſymptoms of catarrh (though now and then the diſtinguiſhing marks of the complaint appear at firſt) theſe are ſoon ſucceeded by fever, accompanied with a ſenſe of tightneſs acroſs the cheſt, and a difficulty in reſpiration, though not any in deglutition; but the diſtinguiſhing ſymptom of the diſeaſe, is a peculiar noiſe or ſhrillneſs in coughing or ſpeaking, and even in reſpiration, as if the air was forced through a metallic tube. Though the cough is in general dry, yet films, accompanied with a fluid having the appearance of purulent matter, are ſometimes expectorated, and occaſionally a tube of concreted mucus, having the form of the windpipe, has been coughed up. It has proved fatal in one or two days from its attack, but in general it runs on to four or five; a ſpaſmodic affection of the windpipe, and an inability to breathe, ſeizes on the patient, who in general expires ſuddenly in this way. On diſſection, the *trachea* is in general found lined with thickened mucus, reſembling a membrane, which in ſome inſtances nearly filled up the cavity; underneath this is a fluid reſembling purulent matter, with which the *bronchiæ* are likewiſe very much loaded. It appears to be a truly inflammatory diſeaſe. General as well as topical bleedings in the early part of the diſeaſe are much to be depended on; leeches applied to the throat, and the bleeding encouraged by fomenting with warm water, prove very uſeful; a bliſter may afterward be applied to the ſame part: active emetics ſhould by no means be omitted, but frequently adminiſtered during the continuance of the diſeaſe; and inhaling warm vapours, particularly thoſe ariſing from vinegar mixed with boiling water, prove uſeful; the bowels ſhould likewiſe be kept in a gentle laxative ſtate. Vitriolated zinc has been particularly recommended as an emetic; but it does not ſeem to poſſeſs any ſuperiority over other emetics, except from the quality it has of more ſpeedily exciting the ſtomach to action; it may therefore be given in thoſe caſes, where the danger is ſo urgent as to to render it unſafe to wait for the operation of other emetics.

The HISTORY *of* KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, *and* TASTE, *in* Great Britain, *during the Reign of* Queen ELISABETH.

Part the Fourth and Laſt: Continued from Page 173.

[From the New Annual Regiſter, for the Year 1792.]

WE come now to an object of great conſequence in the hiſtory of knowledge during this reign; and that is, the ſtate of female literature. Here we muſt begin with her majeſty herſelf, the illuſtrious queen Eliſabeth; and in ſo doing we pay not a compliment to her rank, but her merit. She was truly and ſubſtantially learned, having ſtudied the beſt ancient as well as modern authors, and being an uncommon miſtreſs of the Greek and Roman tongues. The confinement and perſecutions of her youth afforded ſcope for the acquiſition of eminent intellectual attainments; and Roger Aſcham was one of her preceptors. How well ſkilled ſhe was in the Greek language, was manifeſt from her writing a comment on Plato, and from her tranſlating into Latin a dialogue of Xenophon, two orations of Iſocrates, and a play of Euripides. Into Engliſh ſhe tranſlated Plutarch de Curioſitate. Her verſions from Latin authors into her own tongue were Boethius's Conſolation of Philoſophy, Salluſt's Jugurthine War, and part of Horace's Art of Poetry. With her general learning, queen Eliſabeth united an uncommon readineſs in ſpeaking the Latin language; a talent which ſome very good ſcholars do not poſſeſs; though it was more frequent in that age than it is in the preſent. This talent ſhe diſplayed in three orations; one delivered in the univerſity of Cambridge, and two in the univerſity of Oxford. An extraordinary inſtance of her ability in this way was exhibited in a rapid piece of eloquence with which ſhe interrupted an inſolent ambaſſador from Poland. 'Having ended her oration,' ſhe, lion-like, riſing,' ſay the hiſtorians, 'daunted the malapert orator no leſs with her ſtately port and majeſtic departure, than with the tartneſs of her princely checks; and turning to the train of her attendants, ſaid,' "God's death! my lords, I have been forced this day to ſcour up my old Latin that hath long lain ruſting." By her contemporaries Eliſabeth has been highly extolled for her poetry; but this muſt be ſet down to the flattery of the age. However, ſhe had a capacity for Latin verſification. We leave it to the more copious narrator, to take notice of her tranſlations from the French, her prayers and meditations, her ſpeeches in parliament, and her letters; which laſt are diſperſed, in vaſt numbers, through a variety of collections.

The beautiful, the unfortunate, and the imprudent Mary queen of Scots has been ranked as an author, and ſhe is entitled to the character. With her great rival Eliſabeth, indeed, ſhe makes but a feeble compariſon, having been far inferior to her in deep learning. She rather excelled in thoſe lighter parts of literature that were faſhionable in the court wherein ſhe had been educated. To the Greek tongue ſhe was probably an entire ſtranger; but that ſhe was acquainted with the Latin, was apparent from her writing poems in that language, as well as in the French and the Scotch. She compoſed alſo, a 'Conſolation of her long Impriſonment, and royal Advice to her Son.' Many of her Letters occur in public libraries, and are frequently finding their way to the preſs, in conſequence of the minute attention to hiſtorical information which is now ſo generally prevalent. As to the famous Letters to James, earl of Bothwell, which have been ſo much the ſubject of controverſy and debate, it is no part of the preſent narrative to enquire into their authenticity.

Quitting ſuch high rank, we introduce

troduce the name of Eliſabeth Jane Weſton. She had, it is ſaid, great natural talents, which were much improved by a polite education. Many languages were underſtood by her, and ſhe was particularly intelligent in the Latin tongue; in which ſhe wrote ſeveral things both in proſe and verſe with very good ſucceſs. Such was the eſtimation in which her performances were held, that ſhe was taken notice of by ſome of the moſt learned foreigners of the time, and was honoured with their correſpondence. The praiſes they beſtowed upon her were copious, and even Scaliger was one of her encomiaſts. As her life was principally ſpent abroad, ſhe was more known to the learned upon the continent than to her own countrymen. However, her fame extended to England; for Mr. Evelyn gave her a place in his Catalogue of Learned Women; Mr. Philips has introduced her among his Female Poets; and Mr. Farnaby has ranked her, in the poetical line, with ſir Thomas More, Alabaſter, and other names of eminence. It was Latin poetry to which Mrs. Weſton chiefly devoted herſelf. We apprehend that part of the applauſes which have been laviſhed upon her may be imputed to the good nature and perſonal reſpect of her contemporaries, and to the ready acquieſcence of ſucceeding writers.

Mary Sidney, counteſs of Pembroke, and the beloved ſiſter of the matchleſs (as he is often called) ſir Philip Sidney, has a claim to be here remembered. Having the advantages of the beſt education, ſhe acquired ſuch accompliſhments of mind as to make an honourable appearance among the literati of the time, and to draw from them ample teſtimonies of her merit. Two works, which were publiſhed by her, were only tranſlations; one being 'A Diſcourſe of Life and Death;' and the other, 'The Tragedie of Antonie.' Lady Pembroke was not only learned herſelf, but appears to have been a patroneſs of letters.

But among the women of this period who were devoted to the ſtudy of literature, the principal place ſeems to be due to the four daughters of ſir Anthony Cooke. Theſe ladies deſerve to be ſomewhat particularly inſiſted upon; and the rather, as we ſhall hence be enabled the more exactly to appreciate the kinds and degrees of knowledge which then prevailed in the female world. The eldeſt of ſir Anthony Cook's daughters was Mildred, who, being put under the tuition of Mr. Laurence, an eminent Grecian, fully anſwered the care and pains that were taken in her education. In due time ſhe became excellently acquainted with the Greek and Latin tongues, and eſpecially with the former. This appeared in a letter which ſhe wrote to the univerſity of Cambridge, in that language. Her reading was not confined to the claſſic writers of Greece only, but extended likewiſe to the ancient chriſtian fathers. Among the reſt, ſhe took great delight in peruſing Baſil, Cyril, Chryſoſtom: and Gregory Nazianzen. A piece of St. Chryſoſtom's was tranſlated from the original, into the Engliſh language. She was, likewiſe, a patroneſs of literature. Beſide being converſant in ancient learning, ſhe had an admirable underſtanding, and is ſaid to have been a good politician. Nor will this be thought ſurpriſing, conſidering her intellectual powers, and that, for more than forty and two years, ſhe was the wife of the illuſtrious ſtateſman William Cecil, lord Burleigh. As an evidence of her political talents, Mr. Ballard has produced a letter written by her to ſir William Fitzwilliams, at that time lord deputy of Ireland, which contains ſome excellent advice, and ſhews that ſhe was not only a woman of great good ſenſe, but well acquainted with the world. Five days after her deceaſe, lord Burleigh wrote what he calls a Meditation on the Death of his Lady, in which her zeal for the maintenance of learning is particularly remembered.

Anne,

Anne, the ſecond daughter of ſir Anthony Cooke, became the wife of the lord-keeper, ſir Nicholas Bacon, and was the mother of the illuſtrious Francis Bacon. She had the ſame liberal education which was beſtowed upon her elder ſiſter, and perhaps under the ſame tutor. Having added much acquired knowledge to great natural endowments, ſhe made an eminent figure among the literati of that period, and hence acquired ſo extraordinary a reputation, that ſhe is ſaid to have been conſtituted governeſs to King Edward the Sixth. If this be a fact, it is a very ſurpriſing one; ſince ſhe could not be much more than twenty-five years of age at the death of that young monarch, and only nineteen years old when he began to reign. However that matter may ſtand, it is certain that ſhe early became diſtinguiſhed for piety, virtue, and learning, and that ſhe was ſkilled in the Greek, Latin, and Italian tongues. Before ſhe married ſir Nicholas Bacon, ſhe had given to the world a ſpecimen of her literary induſtry, in tranſlating, out of Italian into Engliſh, twenty-five ſermons, written by Barnardine Ochine, a celebrated divine of that age, concerning the predeſtination and election of God. Not long after her marriage, lady Bacon again employed her pen, much to her own honour, and to the advantage of her country. At that time the Roman Catholics in general, and the Engliſh fugitives in particular, induſtriouſly applied all the learning, wit, and malice they were poſſeſſed of, to the purpoſes of blackening the reformation of the church of England, and of bringing our excellent reformers into contempt. Pope Pius the Fourth had called the council of Trent, and had ſent his nuncio, Martiningo, to invite queen Eliſabeth to accede to it. The chief princes of Chriſtendom interpoſed, likewiſe, by letters to her majeſty, ſoliciting her to entertain the nuncio, and ſubmit to the council. At ſuch a criſis, it was deemed neceſſary to give the world an account of what had been done in the Engliſh parliament, and of the reaſons on which it had proceeded; and to retort the many accuſations that had been brought againſt our church by the papiſts. On this occaſion, the learned, eloquent, and maſterly pen of the incomparable biſhop Jewel was employed, in drawing up, in the Latin tongue, an 'Apology for the Church of England.' This taſk he performed to the infinite ſatisfaction of the reformed churches, and to the ſhame and confuſion of the Romaniſts. As the book made a great noiſe in the world, and excited no ſmall degree of alarm among the advocates of the popiſh communion, the common people of England were earneſtly deſirous of becoming acquainted with its contents. But the literary men of that period being wholly engaged in refuting the calumnies raiſed by the papiſts, and in anſwering the numerous ſeditious libels which ſwarmed hither from Louvain, Douay, and other places, lady Bacon determined to gratify the curioſity of the public, and to promote the edification of her countrymen, by tranſlating biſhop Jewel's work. The verſion is ſaid not only to be faithful, but elegant, due regard being had to the time in which it was made. When the tranſlation was finiſhed, lady Bacon ſent the copy to archbiſhop Parker for his peruſal, as a perſon to whom the care of the church of England, and of its doctrine, chiefly belonged. Another copy was ſent by her to biſhop Jewel, to be overlooked by him, leſt ſhe ſhould in any point have miſtaken his meaning. The tranſlation was accompanied by an epiſtle to him in Greek, which he anſwered in the ſame language. Both the biſhop and the archbiſhop, after reading over the verſion, found it to be ſo correct, as not to require the alteration of a ſingle word. Lady Bacon muſt undoubtedly have been an excellent Latiniſt, and have thoroughly

roughly entered into the ſpirit of the work, when the original author of it could find nothing to amend in her tranſlation. A letter written to her by the archbiſhop on the occaſion, and which is preſerved by Ballard, is highly to her honour. That her literary reputation extended beyond her own country, is evident from the famous Theodore Beza's dedication to her of his Meditations. In Birch's Memoirs of the Reign of Queen Eliſabeth, lady Bacon's name frequently occurs; and we there meet with ſome of her letters at full length, and with extracts from others of them, which will fully juſtify the following character given of her by the hiſtorian now mentioned. 'She frequently introduces Greek as well as Latin into her letters, ſometimes with a view of ſecrecy, but more commonly from the cuſtom of that age, wherein ſuch an intermixture of languages had leſs the air of pedantry and affectation than it would have in the preſent. She was very ſtrict in the duties of piety, and inclined to the principles of the puritans, to whom her huſband had not been thought unfavourable: but her temper ſeems to have been ſevere and peeviſh, eſpecially in the latter years of her life, when it was probably affected by her ill health. Her advices and remonſtrances to her elder ſon Anthony, were generally delivered in a ſtyle of authority, and in terms of reproach, which rendered them leſs acceptable and effectual than otherwiſe they might have been.'

Eliſabeth, the third daughter of ſir Anthony Cooke, and who was married, firſt, to ſir Thomas Hobby, and, ſecondly to John, lord Ruſſel, ſon and heir to Francis Ruſſel, earl of Bedford, enjoyed the ſame liberal education which was beſtowed upon her ſiſters, and was equally happy in improving the advantages conferred upon her. Such was her progreſs in the learned languages, that ſhe gained the applauſes of the moſt eminent ſcholars of that age. It was obſerved by ſir John Harrington, that if Madam Vittoria, an Italian lady, deſerved to have her name celebrated and tranſmitted to poſterity by Arioſto, for writing ſome verſes in the manner of an epitaph, after his deceaſe; no leſs commendation was due to the lady before us, who diſtinguiſhed herſelf ſtill more in a ſimilar ſpecies of writing. Poetical inſcriptions and epitaphs were a favourite kind of compoſition with lady Ruſſel. She wrote epitaphs for her ſon, daughter, brother, ſiſter, and a venerable old friend, in the Greek, Latin, and Engliſh tongues. The tomb in which were depoſited the remains of her firſt huſband ſir Thomas Hobby, and of his brother ſir Philip Hobby, was adorned by her with large inſcriptions in Latin and Engliſh verſe. Equal, or rather ſuperior honour, was paid by her to the memory of her ſecond huſband, lord Ruſſel, who died before his father. A noble monument having been erected to him in the abbey church of Weſtminſter, his ſurviving lady embelliſhed it not only with Latin and Engliſh, but with Greek inſcriptions. Lady Ruſſel tranſlated, out of French into Engliſh, a tract, entitled, 'A way of Reconciliation of a good and learned Man, touching the true Nature and Subſtance of the Body and Blood of Chriſt.' This work was dedicated to her only daughter, Anne Herbert, wife to Henry lord Herbert; and the dedication is concluded with a tetraſtic in Latin verſe, expreſſive of good wiſhes, ſuitable to the opening of a new year. It is evident, from a letter written by her to lord treaſurer Burleigh, relative to the conduct of one of her ſons by ſir Thomas Hobby, that ſhe was a woman of uncommon ſenſe and ſpirit.

Katherine, the fourth daughter of ſir Anthony Cooke, and who was married to Henry Killegrew, eſq. afterward knighted, has had a place juſtly aſſigned her among the learned ladies of the age, though ſhe does not appear to have been the author

of any diſtinct and ſeparate treatiſe. Her natural genius being improved by the ſame excellent education which was beſtowed upon her ſiſters, ſhe became famous for her knowledge in the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin tongues, and for her ſkill in poetry. A ſhort ſpecimen of her talent in that art has been preſerved by ſir John Harrington and Dr. Thomas Fuller. On the monument erected to her memory, is an inſcription compoſed by herſelf. Both the ſmall pieces we have mentioned were written in Latin. The death of lady Killegrew was lamented in various epitaphs. Her ſiſter, lady Ruſſel, wrote one, partly in Greek and partly in Latin verſe. Three others, in Latin verſe, were written by Robert Maſon Forman, miniſter of the reformed French church in London, by Andrew Melvin, and by William Chark. Such of our readers as are curious to ſee theſe productions, may find them in Ballard.

We have been the more particular in our account of the ladies who diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their intellectual accompliſhments in queen Eliſabeth's reign, as it will lead us to ſome obſervations on the general ſtate of female literature in that period. It has been remarked by Mr. Wotton, that no age was ſo productive of learned women as the ſixteenth century. "Speaking of the flouriſhing condition of learning in that century, he ſays, it was ſo very modiſh, that the fair ſex ſeemed to believe that Greek and Latin added to their charms; and that Plato and Ariſtotle, untranſlated, were frequent ornaments of their cloſets. One would think by the effects, that it was a proper way of educating them, ſince there are no accounts in hiſtory of ſo many great women in any one age, as are to be found between the years fifteen and ſixteen hundred." Eraſmus, alſo deſcribing thoſe times, ſays, "Sacra rerum humanarum inveſtitur: monarchi literas neſciunt et fœmina libris indulgent. Bellum eſt eum ſexum ad priſca exempla ſeſe poſtliminio recipere." "The ſcene of human affairs is changed: the monks are ignorant of literature, and women are fond of books. It is a pleaſing circumſtance, that the female ſex ſhould at length have recourſe to the ancient examples." Learning was then held in ſuch high eſtimation, that ſeveral great men were deſirous that their daughters ſhould be poſſeſſed of it, as well as their ſons. The examples of king Henry the eighth, in the education of the princeſſes Mary and Eliſabeth, and of ſir Thomas More with regard to Mrs. Roper, are thought to have chiefly contributed to the introduction of this cuſtom. There can be no doubt but that the conduct of perſons ſo illuſtrious would have much effect on the ſentiments of our countrymen, and be productive of imitation. But, beſide this, there was a concurrence of other cauſes; ſuch as the recent origin of printing; the curioſity hence excited in the human mind; the admiration with which the ancient writers, ſo lately brought to light, were contemplated; and the diſtinguiſhed honour that aroſe from literary purſuits. In ſhort, the general ſpirit of the age nouriſhed the principle of training up women in learning. Nor was a ſlight degree of learning deemed ſufficient for them. They were rendered complete miſtreſſes of the Greek and Latin, as well as of the modern languages. Their reading was not confined to the claſſic authors, but comprehended the fathers of the church. They could write Greek epiſtles, and compoſe Greek verſes. It ſhould be remembered, however, that the literature of the women of that period extended comparatively but to a few perſons, and thoſe only of conſiderable rank, the generality of the female ſex being in a ſtate of ignorance. There was by no means that diffuſion of knowledge, that cultivation of mind, that taſte for books, which we now meet with in almoſt every company of ladies.

dies. Neither do we find that the learned women of the ſixteenth century produced ſuch works as have continued to be read much by poſterity. The moſt important production of any of ſir Anthony Cooke's daughters, was lady Bacon's tranſlation of Biſhop Jewel's *Apology*; and yet, who but an antiquary will now ſeek for it, or give himſelf the trouble of peruſing it? Not a ſingle poeteſs, deſerving to be mentioned, aroſe in this country till the ſeventeenth century. The ducheſs of Newcaſtle, Mrs. Katherine Philips, and Mrs. Behn, appear to have been the firſt who could, in any degree, merit that appellation. If we come down to later times, we ſhall be ſenſible that, independently of poetry, the learned women of Eliſabeth's reign have been far exceeded by the ingenious ladies of the preſent age, both in the general and extenſive utility of their writings, and in the elegancies of compoſition. There is a remark to be made concerning the difference between the literature of the ladies of the ſixteenth century, and that of the women of more recent times. The former entered deeply into the ſtudy of the ancient languages; while the latter, beſide acquiring a ſkill in the modern tongues, eſpecially the French and the Italian, have paid their principal attention to the cultivation of general knowledge, though a few of them have been no ſmall proficients in the learning of antiquity.—Another circumſtance obſervable in the learned ladies of the ſixteenth century is, that they were moſt eminent for their piety. Religion was deeply impreſſed upon their minds, and, agreeably to the faſhion of the times, religion was almoſt the ſole topic of their writings.

In ſpeaking concerning the ſtate of muſic during the reign of queen Eliſabeth, as we have not a ſcientific knowledge of the ſubject, we ſhall take Dr. Burney for our guide; in doing which it is impoſſible that we ſhould fall into any material error. Eliſabeth, as well as the other children of king Henry the eighth, had been taught muſic in the early part of life; and there is reaſon to conclude that ſhe continued to amuſe herſelf with it many years after ſhe aſcended the throne. Indeed, if ſhe was ever able to execute any of the pieces that are preſerved in a manuſcript which goes under the name of 'Queen Eliſabeth's Virginal Book,' ſhe muſt have been a very great player: for ſome of the pieces are ſo difficult, that it would be ſcarcely poſſible to find a maſter in Europe who would undertake to play one of them at the end of a month's practice. Such being her ſkill in the art, it might naturally be expected that ſhe would be an encourager of muſic in general. Choral muſic in particular, which, in the zeal for reformation, had a multitude of enemies, was protected by her majeſty. Her chapel eſtabliſhment was nearly the ſame, in number and ſalary, as that of the two former reigns; and, perhaps, we never had ſo juſt a claim to equality with the reſt of Europe, even where muſic was the moſt ſucceſsfully cultivated, as at this period. There was, it is true, but little melody any where. Nevertheleſs, with reſpect to harmony, canon, fugue, and the laboured and learned contrivances which were then chiefly ſtudied and admired, ſuch proofs can be produced of great abilities in the compoſitions of our countrymen, that candid judges of their merit muſt allow them to abound in every kind of excellence which at that time was known or expected.

In 1559, the queen publiſhed Injunctions for the Clergy; in the forty-ninth of which there is one for choral muſic. According to this order, as plain-ſong was retained in moſt pariſh churches for the daily pſalms, ſo in her own chapels, and in the choir of all cathedrals, and ſome colleges, the hymns were ſung after a more melodious manner, with organs commonly, and ſometimes with

with other musical instruments, as the solemnity required. It was by the moderation, liberality, and intelligence of this injunction, that choral music was saved from utter extirpation in England; for the opposition which was made to this species of music by the puritans, and the puritannically affected, was formidable in a high degree. Their violence and outcry against 'playing upon organs, curious singing,' and 'tossing about the psalms from side to side' (meaning antiphonical, or alternate singing) were so great, that they could only be restrained by an exertion of all the power and firmness of which the queen was possessed. In a contest so arduous, and during the whole time in which the reformation of the ecclesiastical laws was in agitation, the lovers of choral music, who had a veneration for this part of the solemn service of the church, trembled for its safety.—Two publications, by John Day, fixed the style of this music for nearly a century. The movement of it was grave, the harmony grateful, and the contrivance frequently ingenious. Modern times, however, have charged this kind of music with obscuring the sense of what was sung, by too frequent fugue; as well as by an utter inattention to the accent and expression of the words. But these imperfections were not peculiar to the productions of our own countrymen during the sixteenth century. They were the general faults of the age; being equally prevalent in the compositions for the church of every author, in every language throughout Europe.

Another object of attention at that time was 'Metrical or Parochial Psalmody,' different from the plain-song, or chanting, of cathedral and collegiate churches. This species of music was held in high estimation by the reformers of religion, both at home and abroad, from Wickliffe down to John Knox. Greatly as it was admired, and zealously as it was contended for, true taste must find in it much to be condemned. Though the promoters of it had each of them different ideas on the subject of sacred music, yet they agreed in stripping it of all the energy and embellishments of measure and melody. The Calvinists went so far as to deprive it of harmony. Nor were the original institutes of psalmody more favourable to poetry than music; for prosody, rhythm, and numerical cadence, are destroyed by giving to each syllable, whether long or short, a note of the same length. However beautiful the poetical measures may be in themselves, when they are sung in a drawling and isochronous manner, they not only afford no pleasure to the ear, but are scarcely intelligible.

Several of the Psalms had been translated into metre previously to queen Elisabeth's reign; but the entire version of the Psalter was not published till 1562, when it was tacked for the first time to the Common-Prayer. To this version were added musical notes. There was, however, no bass or other part, but the mere tunes, which are chiefly German, and are still used on the continent by Lutherans and Calvinists. The first person in England who seems to have composed parts to the old melodies, was William Damon, whose publication appeared in 1579. These parts not being well received by the public, he printed others in 1591. In 1585, sixty Psalms were published by Cosyns, in six parts, in plain counterpoint, and adjusted to the melodies which before had been given by Day. But the most ample and compleat edition of the Psalms, in parts, that appeared in England during the sixteenth century, was the united production of nine different authors. These were John Douland, E. Blancks, E. Hooper, J. Farmer, R. Allison, G. Kirby, W. Cobbold, E. Johnson, and G. Farnaby. In the former publications, forty tunes only are contained; but this furnishes

niſhes one to every pſalm. To the tenor part is aſſigned the principal melody; and the additional parts are *cantus*, *altus*, and *baſs*. The counterpoint is conſtantly ſimple, of note againſt note; but the whole of it is in ſuch correct and excellent harmony, as manifeſts that the art was at that time very ſucceſsfully cultivated in England. This work was publiſhed in 1594. In the ſame year, a ſimilar publication came from John Mundy, gentleman, batchelor of muſic, and one of the organiſts of her majeſty's free chapel of Windſor; but his performance has no claim to particular diſtinction. Another Collection of Pſalms appeared in 1599, by Richard Alliſon. Theſe pſalms the Italians would have called *Salmi Concertati*, as they were intended for inſtruments as well as voices. In this collection the melodies are the ſame as in the earlier editions of the verſion by Sternhold and Hopkins; and the parts are ſo diſpoſed, that four perſons ſitting round a table may perform from the ſame book. If credit is to be given to Alliſon's contemporaries, his work abounds with uncommon excellence. But ſuperior knowledge and ſuperior impartiality have pronounced, that it has no merit beyond what was very uſual at the time in which it was printed. The next publication of Pſalm Tunes, in four parts, and the moſt complete that perhaps ever appeared in this country, was by Thomas Ravenſcroft, who belongs to the ſucceeding reign.

[To be concluded in our next.]

SELECT PASSAGES FROM SHAKSPEARE.

NUMBER XXI.

WINTER's TALE.

Concluded from Page 200.

Love.

Florizel. The gods themſelves,
Humbling their deities to love, have taken
The ſhapes of beaſts upon them: Jupiter
Became a bull, and bellow'd; the green Neptune
A ram, and bleated; and the fire-rob'd god,
Golden Apollo, a poor humble ſwain,
As I ſeem now. Their tranſformations
Were never for a piece of beauty rarer;
Nor in a way ſo chaſte; ſince my deſires
Run not before mine honour; nor my luſts
Burn hotter than my faith.

The alluſion above to the heathen mythology, in which their gods are repreſented as abandoned, without even a momentary ſenſe of virtue and decorum, to the ungoverned paſſions of mortals, is a fine introduction, however, to the beautiful deſcription, at the concluſion, of a chaſte, and pure, and honourable paſſion in a lover.

Nature and Art:

Perdita. Sir, the year growing ancient,
Nor yet on ſummer's death, nor on the birth
Of trembling winter, the faireſt flowers o' the ſeaſon
Are our carnations, and ſtreak'd gilliflowers,
Which ſome call Nature's baſtards; of that kind
Our ruſtic garden's barren; and I care not
To get ſlips of them.
Polixenes. Wherefore, gentle maiden,
Do you neglect them?
Perdita. For I have heard it ſaid,
There is an art, which, in their piedneſs, ſhares
With great creating Nature.
Polixenes. Say there be;
Yet Nature is made better by no mean,
But Nature makes that mean: ſo, ever that art
Which, you ſay, adds to Nature, is an art,
That Nature makes. You ſee, ſweet maid, we marry
A gentler cyon to the wildeſt ſtock;
And make conceive a bark of baſer kind
By bud of nobler race. This is an art

Which does mend Nature, *change* it rather; but
The art itself is Nature.
Perdita. So it is.
Polixenes. Then make your garden rich in gilliflowers,
And do not call them baſtards.
Perdita. I'll not put
The dibble in earth to ſet one ſlip of them;
No more than, were I painted, I would wiſh
This youth ſhould ſay, 'twere well; and only therefore
Deſire to breed by me.

The art to which Perdita alludes in the beginning of this quotation, is pretended to be taught at the ends of ſome of the old books of cookery, &c. ſuch as inſerting different coloured ſilk threads in the roots, and other methods, which, as they are utterly impracticable, are not worth exemplification. With reſpect to the varieties in plants, &c. which ſeem to be exceptions to the general laws of Nature, Polixenes juſtly obſerves, that even when produced by art, either by grafting, budding, &c. that art is but Nature ſtill. This introduces one of the moſt refined ſentiments of a chaſte and delicate mind that can poſſibly be conceived; Perdita, in her laſt ſpeech, diſplays a charming genuineneſs of nature; for, although ſhe conteſts the truth of Polixenes' poſition, yet ſhe is ſo jealous of the honour of nature, that even the mere appearance of a violation of her rights offends her; and the companion ſhe makes, on this occaſion, is extremely beautiful. The reader, who overlooks theſe *minutiæ* of Shakſpeare, ſees not half his *greatneſs*.

Beautiful Praiſe.

Florizel. What you do,
Still Betters what is done. When you ſpeak, ſweet,
I'd have you do it ever: when you ſing,
I'd have you buy and ſell ſo; ſo give alms;
Pray ſo; and, for the ordering of your affairs,
To ſing them too. When you do dance, I wiſh you
A wave o' the ſea, that you might ever do
Nothing but that; move ſtill, ſtill ſo, and own
No other function. Each your doing,
So ſingular in each particular,
Crowns what you are doing in the preſent deeds,
That all your acts are queens.

To this ſpeech, which breathes ſuch exquiſite tenderneſs, with what good ſenſe and prudence does Perdita anſwer:

O Doricles,
Your praiſes are too large: but that your youth,
And the true blood that peeps fairly through it,
Do plainly give you out an unſtain'd ſhepherd;
With wiſdom I might fear, my Doricles,
You woo'd me the falſe way.

Florizel's reply to this exhibits the true character of youth in the different ſexes—ſincerity on one ſide, and confidence on the other. Deceit and diffidence are the fruits of riper years:

I think, you have
As little ſkill to fear *, as I have purpoſe
To put you to 't.

Rural Simplicity.

Perdita. I was not much afeard: for once, or twice,
I was about to ſpeak; and tell him plainly,
The ſelf-ſame ſun that ſhines upon his court,
Hides not his viſage from our cottage, but
Looks on all alike.

The character of Perdita is here finely ſuſtained. To have made her quite aſtoniſhed at the king's diſcovery of himſelf, had not become her birth; and to have given her preſence of mind to make this reply to the king had not become her education. The ſentiment is plainly taken from the goſpel of St. Matthew, chap. v. verſe 45. 'He maketh his ſun to riſe on the evil and on the good, and ſendeth rain on the juſt and the unjuſt.'

* That is, as little ſuſpicion in your nature.

juſt.'—And Horace, ſpeaking of death, likewiſe contraſts the cottage and the palace:

Pallida mors æquo pulſat pede pauperum tabernas
Regumque turres.

With equal foot, impartial fate
Knocks at the palace and the cottage gate.
CREECH.

Effects of Affliction on Love.

Camillo. Proſperity's the very bond of love;
Whoſe freſh complexion and whoſe heart together
Affliction alters.

If this reflection were true, it would certainly be one of the heavieſt circumſtances that could attend affliction. But Perdita denies this, and thus beautifully expreſſes her own fidelity and conſtancy:

One of theſe is true:
I think, affliction may ſubdue the cheek,
But not take in * the mind.

Ovid has extended this ſentiment:

Nam cum præſtiteris verum mihi ſemper amorem,
Hic tamen adverſo tempore crevit amor.

True love to me indeed you ever bore,
But in adverſity ſtill lov'd me more.

A Clown's Idea of a Great Man.

Clown. This cannot be but a great courtier.

Shepherd. His garments are rich, but he wears them not handſomely.

Clown. He ſeems to be the more noble in being fantaſtical: a great man, I'll warrant; I know, by the picking on's teeth.

This debate between the Old Shepherd and his ſon, on ſeeing Autolycus, the ſharper, dreſſed up in a ſuit of the prince's clothes, contains ſome excellent ridicule on the affectations of perſons of rank, in the deſcription of the manners by which the vulgar often diſtinguiſh their *betters*, perhaps their *ſuperiors* only. It ſeems, that to pick the teeth, was, in Shakſpeare's time, a mark of ſome pretenſion to greatneſs and elegance.

Length of Penitence and Self Reproach.

Cleomenes. Sir, you have done enough, and have perform'd
A ſaint-like ſorrow: no fault could you make,
Which you have not redeem'd; indeed, paid down
More penitence, than done treſpaſs. At the laſt,
Do, as the heavens have done; forget your evil;
With them, forgive yourſelf.
Leontes. Whilſt I remember
Her, and her virtues, I cannot forget
My blemiſhes in them; and ſo ſtill think of
The wrong I did myſelf: which was ſo much,
That heirleſs it hath made my kingdom; and
Deſtroy'd the ſweeteſt companion, that e'er man
Bred his hopes out of.
Paulina. True, too true, my lord:
If, one by one, you wedded all the world,
Or, from the all that are, took ſomething good,
To make a perfect woman; ſhe, you kill'd,
Would be unparallel'd.
Leontes. I think ſo. Kill'd!
She I kill'd! I did ſo: but thou ſtrik'ſt me
Sorely, to ſay I did; it is as bitter
Upon thy tongue, as in my thought: Now, good now,
Say ſo but ſeldom.
Cleomenes. Not at all, good lady;
You might have ſpoken a thouſand things, that would
Have done the time more benefit, and grac'd
Your kindneſs better.

We have already noticed the ſubmiſſive language of Leontes to Paulina at the concluſion of the third act. He here manifeſts the ſame humiliation and contrition for his crime that he did then; but as an interval of

* To *take in* anciently meant, to *conquer*, to *get the better of*.

ſixteen

ſixteen years, ſpent in ſorrow and repentance, had paſſed, he, as was natural then, ſhews ſome uneaſineſs at Paulina's reproach, and intreats to be relieved from it for the future; but this in ſuch a gentle and ſubmiſſive manner as none but Shakſpeare himſelf could have conceived.

Silent Emotions of Joy and Wonder.

Autolycus. Beſeech you, ſir, were you preſent at this relation?

Gentleman. I was by at the opening of the farthel, heard the old ſhepherd deliver the manner how he found it: whereupon, after a little amazedneſs, we were all commanded out of the chamber; only this, methought I heard the ſhepherd ſay, he found the child.

Autolycus. I would moſt gladly know the iſſue of it.

Gentleman. I make a broken delivery of the buſineſs: but the changes I perceived in the king and Camillo were very notes of admiration: they ſeemed almoſt, with ſtaring on one another, to tear the caſes of their eyes: there was ſpeech in their dumbneſs, language in their very geſture: they look'd, as they had heard of a world ranſom'd, or one deſtroyed: a notable paſſion of wonder appeared in them: but the wiſeſt beholder, that knew no more but ſeeing, could not ſay, if the importance* were joy or ſorrow; but in the extremity of the one it muſt needs be.

This deſcription not only contains the beautiful and ſublime, but riſes to a ſtill higher ſublimity, or, to ſpeak in the ſtyle of the Pſalmiſt, to the *moſt highest*, in the allusion to the ſcriptural account of the fall of man and his redemption. Our bard, we have already noticed, makes frequent alluſions to the ſacred text.

A bad Character renders Good Fortune uſeleſs.

Autolycus. Now, had I not the daſh of my former life in me, would preferment drop on my head. I brought the old man and his ſon aboard the prince; told him, I heard them talk of a farthel, and I know not what: but he, at that time, overfond of the ſhepherd's daughter (ſo he then took her to be) who began to be much ſea-ſick, and himſelf little better, extremity of weather continuing, this myſtery remained undiſcovered. But 'tis all one to me: for had I been the finder-out of this ſecret, it would not have reliſhed among my other diſcredits.

The circumſtance of Autolycus having thus accidentally contributed to the diſcovery of Perdita, would have been ſufficient to have made the fortune of any other man. But his bad character was an inſurmountable obſtacle to his advancement in life, and deſtroyed all the favourable proſpects which the moſt fortunate conjuncture of circumſtances might exhibit. Nothing, therefore, can more forcibly verify the maxim, 'That honeſty is the beſt policy;' a maxim, which is ſo common, as to be deemed, in a manner, homely; and yet ſo juſt, that it has ſtood the teſt of all experience. Character is 'the immediate jewel of the ſoul,' not only from its own excellence, but even in the temporal advantages which often reſult from it. Loſt health may be reſtored, loſt fortune regained, and even loſt ſenſes recovered; but a loſt character can ſeldom be retrieved.

A NEW DESCRIPTION *of the* CITY *of* PARIS.

PARIS, the capital of France, is one of the largeſt, fineſt, and moſt populous cities of Europe. The river Seine, which croſſes it, forms two ſmall iſlands, one of which, now called *L'Iſle Notre-Dame*, or the *City*, formed the entire town of Lutetia, when it was conquered by Julius Cæſar. The houſes, or rather huts, ſcattered here and there, were round, ſmall, and low. Clovis I, after the defeat of Alaric, made Paris the capital of his kingdom. Its circuit was much extended by Philip Auguſtus. It was greatly embelliſhed by Francis I, the friend of the arts and of letters.

* Importance here ſignifies *import*.

Henry

Henry IV, Louis XIII, XIV, XV, and XVI, added ſucceſſively to the number and importance of the eſtabliſhments.

The inhabitants of Paris are computed to be 800,000. It is two leagues in diameter, and ſix in circumference, including the ſuburbs. It is ſuppoſed to contain 1000 ſtreets and 24,000 houſes, among which are many of five or ſix ſtories.

The rivers Yonne, Marne, and Oiſe, by their junction with the Seine, convey to Paris the commodities of the late provinces of Burgundy, Champagne, and Picardy; and this laſt river furniſhes it with the riches of the late province of Normandy, and of the ſea, which is at the diſtance of forty-two leagues. By means of the Loire, the Allier, and the canals of Orleans and Briare, it has communications with the late provinces of Lyonnois, Auvergne, Bourbonnois, Nivernois, Berry, Orleanois, Touraine, Anjou, and Bretagne; and, by the Vienne, with the late provinces of Limoſin and Poitou. Of the forty-ſeven councils which have been held in this city, that convoked againſt the Arians in 360, and the laſt, which had for its object, in 1528, the condemnation of the doctrines of Luther, are the moſt remarkable. The States General of the kingdom were aſſembled here, in 1302 and 1303, under Philip the Handſome; in 1355, under John II; in 1356, under Charles V, then dauphin; in 1357 and 1369, under the ſame Charles V; in 1380, 1382, and 1412, under Charles VI; in 1614, under Louis XIII; and the firſt national aſſembly of France, convoked by Louis XVI, at Verſailles, was held, after the 19th of October 1789, at Paris, and was ſucceeded by the ſecond national aſſembly in 1791, and by a national convention in 1792.

There are nine principal bridges in Paris, two of which occupy the whole breadth of the Seine; namely, the Pont Neuf and the Pont Royal; to which may be added the unfiniſhed Pont de Louis XVI, begun in 1787. But it is to be here obſerved, that all the names of buildings, ſquares, ſtreets, &c. in honour of their kings, and in compliment to royalty, have been totally changed, ſince the abolition of monarchy, toward the cloſe of 1792. The Pont Neuf, the fineſt and moſt frequented of all the bridges, was begun, under Henry III, in 1578, and finiſhed by Henry IV, in 1604. It is 1020 feet long by 72 broad, and has twelve arches; ſeven of which are on the ſide of the Louvre, and five on the ſide of the ſtreet Dauphine. Between the ſeventh arch and the fifth is a mole, conſtructed on the point of the Iſle du Palais, in front of the Place Dauphine, on which, in 1614, was erected an equeſtrian ſtatue of Henry IV, in bronze. But the ſtatue of this monarch, whoſe memory was once idolized by the French, was deſtroyed, in the general demolition of all the royal ſtatues and inſignia, in 1792. In the ſecond arch of this bridge, on the ſide of the Louvre, is the *Chateau de la Samaritaine* (the Woman of Samaria) a ſmall timber building of three ſtories, conſtructed, in 1712, on piles, and lately repaired. In the inſide is a pump, which raiſes the water of the river, to diſtribute it by pipes to the Louvre, the Tuilleries, &c. In the front, are two figures larger than the life, repreſenting Our Saviour and the Woman of Samaria. A large ſhell, placed between theſe two figures, receives the water from the pump; and from this ſhell it falls, in a ſheet, into a baſin repreſenting Jacob's Well. Above is a ſun-dial; and the whole is crowned by a leaden turret, which contains a ſet of chimes. The other bridges are Pont St. Michel, Pont au Change, le Petit Pont, Pont Notre-Dame, Pont de la Tournelle, Pont Marie, and the Pont Rouge. This laſt, which is a timber bridge, painted red, is the point of communication between the Iſle du Palais and Iſle St. Louis.

Among a great number of public fountains, two only merit attention; that

that of the Innocents, in which, among other fine pieces of ſculpture, is a Galatæa, by Goujeon; and that of Grenelle, the performance of the celebrated Bouchardon.

The fineſt ſquares are, the Place Dauphine, a triangular ſquare, built, and ſo named, by Henry IV, in memory of the birth of Louis XIII; the Place Royale, in which was the equeſtrian ſtatue of Louis XIII, in bronze; the Place Vendome, a ſquare, with the angles truncated, in which was the equeſtrian ſtatue, in bronze, of Louis XIV, in a Roman habit; the Place des Victoires, of a circular form, in which was a ſtatue of the ſame king, crowned by victory, with the arrogant inſcription *Viro Immortali*; and the Place de Louis XV, of an octagon form, in which was an equeſtrian ſtatue, in bronze, of that monarch. This ſquare, which is now called the Place de la Revolution, was the fatal ſcene of the execution of the late unfortunate Louis XVI.—There are likewiſe three triumphal arches, erected to Louis XIV, and known by the names of Porte St. Bernard, Porte St. Denis, and Porte St. Martin.

The moſt intereſting of the manufactures of Paris is that of the Gobelins (ſo called from a family of celebrated dyers, ſettled in this city in 1450) in which tapeſtries are made after the pictures of the greateſt maſters, to ſuch perfection, that one, repreſenting Louis XV, a whole length, framed, and placed among the maſterpieces of painting, was taken, for many days, by multitudes of viſitors, for a finiſhed piece. The manufacture of plate-glaſs likewiſe merits attention.

The cathedral of Notre Dame, a Gothic ſtructure, is one of the largeſt in Europe, and contains forty-five chapels. The coloſſal ſtatue of St. Chriſtopher, which was once the firſt object at the entrance of it, was deſtroyed in 1784. Next to the cathedral, the moſt diſtinguiſhed churches are, St. Sulpice, St. Euſtache, St. Gervais, St. Etienne du Mont, the old church of St. Genevieve, the new church of St. Genevieve, now called the Pantheon, the churches of St. Severin, St. Roch, and Val-de-Grace. In that of St. Sulpice is the tomb of its celebrated vicar, M. Languet, through whoſe ſolicitations this magnificent church was begun and finiſhed *. In that of St. Euſtache is the monument of the great Colbert. In the old church of St. Genevieve are the tombs of king Clovis and of the philoſopher Deſcartes. The new church of St. Genevieve, not yet finiſhed, was deſtined by the national aſſembly, April 4, 1791, to receive the remains of ſuch great men as have merited well of their country; and thoſe of the late famous member of that aſſembly, Honoré-Riquetti Mirabeau, were accordingly interred there. But the immortality of the great men that have figured in the commencement and progreſs of the French revolution ſeems to be of very uncertain duration; and the bones of a man, who would have been impeached, perhaps, had he been alive, as a traitor to his country, may not long be permitted to repoſe there. The bodies of John Jacques Rouſſeau, and of Voltaire, have been removed hither; an honour, which has alſo been recently decreed to Deſcartes.—The tomb of cardinal de Richelieu, in the midſt of the choir of the Sorbonne, is the exquiſite performance of Girardon.

The fineſt college in Paris is that of the Four Nations, called alſo Mazarin, from the name of the Cardinal, its founder.

There are (or, by this time, probably, *were*) ſix academies in Paris; namely, the French Academy, founded by cardinal Richelieu; that of Inſcriptions and Belles Lettres, by Louis XIV; that of the Sciences; and thoſe of painting and ſculpture; architecture; and chirurgery.

* See Memoirs of the Life and unparalleled benevolence of M. Languet, in our Magazine for Auguſt 1788.

Among the public libraries, that lately called the King's, holds the firſt rank, in reſpect both to the extent of the buildings, and the number of the volumes. It was founded by Charles V, in 1372. The other libraries are thoſe of St. Genevieve, the College of Mazarin, St Victor, of the Doctrinaires, of the Advocats, and of the faculty of Medicine. That of St. Germain-des-Prés, one of the richeſt in France, containing between 15 and 20,000 manuſcripts, and near 100,000 volumes, is open every day to men of letters.

The Royal (now National) Obſervatory is built of free-ſtone, and neither iron nor wood has been employed in the erection. The Botanical Garden is worthy, in every reſpect, of its late appellation of *Royal*.

The four principal palaces are the Louvre, the Tuileries, the Palais-Royal, and the Luxemburg. The Louvre is diſtinguiſhed into the Old and New. The Old Louvre was begun by Francis I, in 1528; and the grand gallery, 1362 feet long, and 30 broad, which joins it to the palace of the Tuileries, was begun under Charles IX, and finiſhed by Louis XIV, who likewiſe built, in 1665, the New Louvre. But it is ſtill an unfiniſhed ſtructure. In ſome of the apartments, different academies hold their ſittings; and in others are the workſhops and lodging rooms of artiſts.—The Tuileries, begun in 1564, by Catharine of Medicis, continued by Henry IV, and completed by Louis XIV, takes its name from its ſituation in a place, in which were formerly many tile-kilns *(tuileries)* which, for three or four centuries, furniſhed the greateſt part of the tiles uſed in Paris. The riding-houſe, belonging to it, is the place choſen by the national aſſembly for their ſittings, when they removed from Verſailles in October 1789. The garden of the Tuileries, in front of the palace, and on the banks of the Seine, is unqueſtionably the fineſt public walk in Paris. From this palace, when attacked by the enraged mob, on the 10th of Auguſt 1792, the unfortunate Louis XVI went for an aſylum to the hall of the national aſſembly, thence to a priſon, and thence to the ſcaffold.—The Palais Royal was built by cardinal Richelieu in 1629, and had the name of the Cardinal's Palace, till Anne of Auſtria came to reſide in it, in 1643, with her ſon Louis XIV. It has been long the property of the late dukes of Orleans; and the interior has been lately embelliſhed with many beautiful buildings, with ſhops, coffeehouſes, and a garden, which render it like a perpetual fair, and one of the moſt pleaſing walks in the city.—The palace of Luxemburg was built by Mary of Medicis, in 1715, and, in form, ſomewhat reſembles Queen's College, Oxford. Its gardens are open to the public on feſtival days.—The Hotel-des-Invalides, for the wounded and ſuperannuated ſoldiery, is a magnificent ſtructure, built by Louis XIV; as is the Military School, in the Champ de Mars, which was founded by Louis XV. The two principal theatres are the Theatre de la Nation and the Italian Theatre; which, in point of elegance and convenience, are worthy, in every reſpect, of the capital of a great nation.—The Monnoie, or Mint, is alſo a noble building, ſituated on that ſide of the Seine, which is oppoſite the Louvre. The Hotel-de-Ville, or Guildhall of the city, is an ancient ſtructure, in the Place de Greve, which was heretofore the common place of execution. Paris is ſituated in the late province called the Iſle of France; and it now forms, with a ſmall diſtrict round it, one of the 83 departments of France. It is 70 miles ſouth of Rouen, 265 ſouth-eaſt of London, 625 north-weſt of Vienna, and 630 north-eaſt of Madrid.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

ODE to EVENING.

O! when the cowſlip-ſcented gale
Shakes the light dew-drop o'er the dale,
When on her amber-dropping bed
Looſe Eaſe reclines her downy head,
How bleſt! by fairy-haunted ſtream
To melt in wild eſtatic dream!
Die to the pictur'd wiſh, or hear
(Breath'd ſoft on Fancy's trembling ear)
Such lays by angel harps refin'd
As half unchain the flutt'ring mind,
When on life's edge it eyes the ſhore,
And all its pinions ſtretch to ſoar.

On the airy mount reclin'd,
What wiſhes ſooth the muſing mind!
How ſoft the velvet lap of Spring!
How ſweet the Zephyr's violet wing!
Goddeſs of the plaintive ſong,
That leads the melting heart along,
O bid thy voice of genial power
Reach Contemplation's lonely bower.

Hail, fire ſublime, whoſe hallow'd cave
Howls to the hoarſe Deep's daſhing wave;
Thee Solitude to Phœbus bore
Far on the lone deſerted ſhore,
Where Orellana's ruſhing tide
Roars on the rock's projected ſide.
Hence, burſting o'er thy ripen'd mind,
Beams all thy father's thought refin'd:
Hence oft in ſilent vales unſeen,
Thy footſteps print the fairy green;
Or thy ſoul melts to ſtrains of woe,
That from the willow's quivering brow
Sweet warbling breathe; the zephyrs round
O'er Dee's ſmooth current waft the ſound,
When ſoft on bending oſiers laid,
The broad ſun trembling through the bed,
All-wild thy heaven-rapt Fancy ſtrays,
Led through the ſoul-diſſolving maze,
Till Slumber downy-pinion'd, near
Plants her ſtrong fetlocks on thy ear;
The ſoul unfetter'd burſts away,
And baſks at large in beamy day.

Oft ſhelter'd by the trembling ſprays,
I rove the foreſt's winding maze;
Where through the mantling boughs, afar
Glimmers the ſilver-ſtreaming ſtar;
And ſhower'd from every ruſtling blade,
The looſe light floats along the ſhade:
So, hovering o'er the human ſcene,
Gay Pleaſure ſports with brow ſerene;
By Fancy beam'd, the glancing ray
Shoots, flutters, gleams, and fleets away;
Unſettled, dubious, reſtleſs, blind,
Floats all the buſy buſtling mind;
While Memory's unſtain'd leaves retain
No trace from all th' ideal train.

The JUDGMENT of FLOWERS: A Fable.

FAR from the buſy haunts of men,
Far from the glaring eye of day;
Still Fancy paints, with Nature's pen,
Such tints as never can decay.

Haſt thou not ſeen, at evening hour,
When Phœbus ſinks beneath the main,
Reclin'd in ſome ſequeſter'd bower,
The village maid, or ſhepherd ſwain?

Haſt thou not mark'd them cull with care
Some favour'd flow'ret from the reſt,
To deck the breaſt, or bind the hair,
Of thoſe they priz'd and lov'd the beſt?

And ſtill expreſſive of the mind
The emblematic gift was found;
Whether to mournful thought inclin'd,
Or with triumphant gladneſs crown'd.

Near Avon's banks, a cultur'd ſpot,
With many a tuft of flowers adorn'd,
Was once an aged ſhepherd's cot,
Who ſcenes of greater ſplendour ſcorn'd.

Three beauteous daughters bleſs'd his bed,
Who made the little plat their care;
And every ſweet by Flora ſpread
Attentive ſtill they planted there.

Once, when ſtill evening veil'd the ſky,
The ſire walk'd forth, and ſought the bow'r;
And bade the lovely maids draw nigh,
And each ſelect ſome favour'd flower.

The firſt, with radiant ſplendour charm'd,
A variegated tulip choſe:
The next, with love of beauty warm'd,
Preferr'd the ſweetly-bluſhing roſe.

The third, who mark'd with depth of thought,
How thoſe bright flowers muſt fade away,
An evening primroſe only brought,
Which opens with the cloſing day.

The ſage awhile in ſilence view'd
The various choice of flowers diſplay'd;
And then (with wiſdom's gift endued)
Addreſs'd each beauteous liſt'ning maid:

'Who chose the tulip's splendid dyes,
Shall own, too late, when that decays,
That vainly proud, not greatly wise,
She only caught a short-liv'd blaze.

'The rose, though beauteous leaves and sweet
Its glorious vernal pride adorn,
Let her who chose beware to meet
The biting sharpness of its thorn.

'But *she*, who to fair daylight's train
The evening flower more just preferr'd,
Chose real worth, nor chose in vain
The one great object of regard.

'Ambitious *thou!* the tulip race
In all life's varied course beware:
Caught with sweet pleasure's rosy grace
Do *thou* its sharper thorns beware.

'*Thou*, prudent still to Virtue's lore,
Attend, and mark her counsels sage:
She, like thy flower, has sweets in store,
To sooth the evening of thy age.'

He ceas'd: attend the moral strain,
The muse enlighten'd pours;
Nor let her pencil trace in vain
The judgment of the flowers.

FOND RECOLLECTIONS of YOUTH.

[From the Pleasures of Memory: a Poem.]

MARK yon old mansion, frowning thro' the trees,
Whose hollow turret wooes the whistling breeze.
That casement, arch'd with ivy's browneſt shade,
First to these eyes the light of heav'n convey'd.
The mouldering gateway strews the grass-grown court,
Once the calm scene of many a simple sport;
When nature pleas'd, for life itself was new,
And the heart promis'd what the fancy drew.
See, thro' the fractur'd pediment reveal'd,
Where moss inlays the rudely-sculptur'd shield,
The martin's old, hereditary nest.
Long may the ruin spare its hallow'd gueſt!
As jars the hinge, what sullen echoes call!
Oh haste, unfold the hospitable hall!
That hall, where once, in antiquated state,
The chair of justice held the grave debate.
Now stain'd with dews, with cobwebs darkly hung,
Oft has its roof with peals of rapture rung;
When round yon ample board, in due degree,
We sweeten'd every meal with social glee.
The heart's light laughter crown'd the circling jest;
And all was sunshine in each little breast.
'Twas here we chas'd the flipper by its sound;
And turn'd the blindfold hero round and round.
'Twas here, at eve, we form'd our fairy ring;
And Fancy flutter'd on her wildest wing.
Giants and genii chain'd the wondering ear;
And orphan-woes drew Nature's ready tear.
Oft with the babes we wander'd in the wood,
Or view'd the forest-feats of Robin Hood:
Oft, fancy led, at midnight's fearful hour,
With startling step we scal'd the lonely tow'r;
O'er infant innocence to hang and weep,
Murder'd by ruffian hands, when smiling in its sleep.
Ye Household Deities! whose guardian eye
Mark'd each pure thought, ere regiſter'd on high;
Still, still ye walk the consecrated ground,
And breathe the soul of Inspiration round.
As o'er the dusky furniture I bend,
Each chair awakes the feelings of a friend.
The storied arras, source of fond delight,
With old achievement charms the wilder'd sight;
And still, with Heraldry's rich hues impreſt,
On the dim window glows the pictur'd creſt.
The screen unfolds its many-colour'd chart.
The clock still points its moral to the heart.
That faithful monitor 'twas heav'n to hear!
When soft it spoke a promis'd pleasure near:
And has its sober hand, its simple chime,
Forgot to trace the feather'd feet of Time?
That massive beam, with curious carvings wrought,
Whence the caged linnet sooth'd my pensive thought;
Those muskets cas'd with venerable ruſt;
Those once-lov'd forms, still breathing thro' their duſt,
Still from the frame, in mould gigantic caſt,
Starting to life—all whisper of the paſt!

As thro' the garden's deſert paths I rove,
What fond illuſions ſwarm in every grove!
How oft, when purple evening ting'd the weſt,
We watch'd the emmet to her grainy neſt:
Welcom'd the wild-bee home on wearied wing,
Laden with ſweets, the choiceſt of the ſpring!
How oft inſcrib'd, with Friendſhip's votive rhyme,
The bark now ſilver'd by the touch of Time:
Soar'd in the ſwing, half pleas'd and half afraid,
Thro' ſiſter elms that wav'd their ſummer ſhade;
Or ſtrew'd with crumbs yon root-inwoven ſeat,
To lure the redbreaſt from his lone retreat!
Childhood's loved group reviſits every ſcene,
The tangled wood-walk and the tufted green!
Indulgent Memory wakes, and, lo! they live!
Cloth'd with far ſofter hues than light can give.
Thou laſt beſt friend that Heav'n aſſigns below,
To ſooth and ſweeten all the cares we know;
Whoſe glad ſuggeſtions ſtill each vain alarm,
When nature fades, and life forgets to charm;
Thee would the Muſe invoke!—to thee belong
The ſage's precept, and the poet's ſong.
What toften'd views thy magic glaſs reveals,
When o'er the landſcape Time's meek twilight ſteals!
As when in ocean ſinks the orb of day,
Long on the wave reflected luſtres play;
Thy temper'd gleams of happineſs reſign'd
Glance on the darken'd mirror of the mind;
The School's lone porch, with reverend moſſes gray,
Juſt tells the penſive pilgrim where it lay.
White is the bell that rung at peep of dawn,
Quick'ning my truant-feet acroſs the lawn;
Unheard the ſhout that rent the noontide air,
When the ſlow dial gave a pauſe to care.
Up ſprings, at every ſtep, to claim a tear,
Some little friendſhip form'd and cheriſh'd here!
And not the lighteſt leaf, but trembling teems
With golden viſions, and romantic dreams!
Down by yon hazel copſe, at evening, blaz'd
The gipſy's faggot—there we ſtood and gaz'd;
Gaz'd on her ſun-burnt face with ſilent awe,
Her tatter'd mantle, and her hood of ſtraw;
Her moving lips, her caldron brimming o'er;
The drowſy brood that on her back ſhe bore;
Imps, in the barn, with mouſing owlet bred,
From rifled rooſt at nightly revel fed:
Whoſe dark eyes flaſh'd thro' locks of blackeſt ſhade,
When in the breeze the diſtant watch-dog bay'd:
And heroes fled the ſybil's mutter'd call,
Whoſe elfin prowers ſcal'd the orchard-wall.
As o'er my palm the ſilver piece ſhe drew,
And traced the line of life with ſearching view,
How throbb'd my fluttering pulſe with hopes and fears,
To learn the colour of my future years!
Ah, then, what honeſt triumph flush'd my breaſt!
This truth once known—To bleſs is to be bleſt!
We led the bending beggar on his way;
(Bare were his feet, his treſſes ſilver-gray)
Sooth'd the keen pangs his aged ſpirit felt,
And on his tale with mute attention dwelt.
As in his ſcrip we dropp'd our little ſtore,
And wept aloud to think it was no more;
He breath'd his prayer, 'Long may ſuch goodneſs live!'
'Twas all he gave, 'twas all he had to give.

SONNET TO TIME.

By Mrs. ROBINSON.

INSATIATE Deſpot! whoſe reſiſtleſs arm
Shatters the loftieſt fabric from its baſe;
And tears from beauty ev'ry magic charm,
And robs proud Nature of her loveliеſt grace!
Still art thou kind; for as thy pow'r prevails,
And age comes onward, menacing decay;
As warmth expires, and numbing froſt aſſails,
And life's faint lamp preſents a quiv'ring ray;

'Tis

'Tis thine to reconcile the tranquil breaſt,
To prove that ſublunary joys are vain;
To turn from pomp, and all its tinſel train,
And ſeek the ſilent paths of mental reſt:

So, from the deadlieſt poiſon, chymic art
Extracts a healing balm to tranquillize the heart.

RONDEAU.

To the Editor *of the* Univerſal Magazine.

SIR,

A Friend of mine, who has tranſlated the Whole of M. Florian's *charming Paſtoral Romance, entitled* Eſtelle, *for his Amuſement, has permitted me to tranſcribe the beautiful Rondeau I now ſend you, and which you are at Liberty to print previous to the Publication of the Whole, ſhould he ever be prevailed upon to give it to the World. I am, ſir, &c.*

CURIO.

AND am I then going my country to leave,
And for ever from her that I love, to depart?
Muſt I drag on a life from each morn to each eve,
While anguiſh oppreſſes and tortures my heart?
Charming vallies, in which we were wont oft to ſtray,
Where pleaſure and virtue and innocence reign,
Where Eſtelle and I have paſs'd many a day,
Charming vallies, I ne'er ſhall behold you again.

Ye fields, that ſo often of flowers I've deſpoil'd,
To adorn my dear Eſtelle's long ringlets of hair;
Ye roſes, whoſe charms have in conteſt been foil'd,
For your beauty could never with Eſtelle's compare;
Ye pure limpid ſtreams, which yon vales glide among,
Who ſo often her image did wiſh to retain,
And her charms to reflect would your courſes prolong,
Sweet ſtreams, I ſhall never behold you again.

Ye meads, where, when infants, we us'd to reſort;
Which ſo often the ſcenes of affection did prove;
Where we liſp'd our regard, and the neighbours all thought,
Tho' infants in years, we were not ſo in love;
Ye trees, on whoſe bark we have read with delight,
The name I had grav'd, her praiſe to obtain,
(The only name then which I knew how to write)
Ye trees, I ſhall never behold you again.

THE THEATRE.

ON Tueſday, October 1, a little muſical piece, entitled The CHILDREN in the WOOD, was performed, for the firſt time, at the Theatre Royal in the Hay-market, and proved one of the moſt intereſting trifles that has been lately exhibited. The ſubject is the old legendary tale of the Babes of the Wood; and though the author has neceſſarily departed from the anecdote in the ballad, by ſaving the infants, he has imparted much tenderneſs and ſimplicity to the fable, and in the gayer ſcenes thrown much cheerfulneſs into his characters. The touches of nature are irreſiſtible; and if Mr. Banniſter had never been noticed before, his exquiſite delineation of the mixed emotions of Pity, Love, Terror, Tranſport, and Deſpair, which he has to diſplay in the character of one of the inſtruments employed by the uncle for the murder of the babes, would juſtly raiſe him to the firſt place in public opinion. Nothing could be more rapturous than his interview with the infants after their recovery; nothing more perfectly true to nature, than his agitation in the ſcene where Mrs. Bland ſings the old ballad with a captivation that ſubdues every heart. The author is not publicly known, but he has the merit of having produced, apparently without effort, and in a few well-drawn ſcenes, all the happieſt effects of a regular drama. The muſic is by Dr. Arnold, and does him high credit.

On Wedneſday, October 2, at Covent-Garden Theatre, was introduced the ſelected pantomimic entertainment of *Harlequin's Chaplet*; at the concluſion of which were added three ſcenes, repreſenting the capture of Toulon by the Britiſh and Spaniſh ſquadrons, and the diſtreſſed ſituation

ſituation of Toulon previous to the ſurrender of that important place to the Britiſh fleet.—In the firſt ſcene, the people, preſſed by hunger, in a tumultuous manner ſurround a baker's ſhop; but there being no bread to be had, in their diſtreſs they apply to the governor, who diſtributes among them aſſignats to a large amount: theſe they throw away, and repreſent them as no relief to a people periſhing with famine. A trumpet now announces the arrival of a meſſenger from the Britiſh fleet, and a ſailor enters with propoſals to the French governor, who goes out to deliberate upon them. When he is gone, the wretched inhabitants, in a ſuppliant poſture, make known their diſtreſs to, and beg relief of the Britiſh ſailor, who diſtributes among them his purſe, and every thing of value about him, even to his tobacco-box.—The ſecond ſcene repreſents the cordiality which ſubſiſts between the Britiſh and Spaniſh commanders, who enter with the French governor; and the latter having acceded to the propoſals, ſupplies of all ſorts are ſent from the Engliſh fleet, for the relief of the ſtarving inhabitants.—The third ſcene exhibits the French white flag flying on the fort, and the Engliſh fleet entering the outer, while that of France retires into the inner harbour, to be diſmantled according to agreement; and the inhabitants joyfully receive the Engliſh as their deliverers, which they teſtify by joining in a loyal ſong.—Theſe ſcenes are well painted, and we have no doubt give a very accurate idea of the place. The concluding ſcene of the Britiſh fleet ſailing into the harbour is exceedingly grand.

AFFAIRS of FRANCE,

Continued from Page 233.

On the 6th of Sept. the following decree was paſſed unanimouſly, and loudly applauded by the galleries:

I. All public functionaries, agents of the nation, army contractors, receivers, collectors, adminiſtrators, and other public men, ſhall be bound to give an account of their fortunes before 1791, and ſince that period.

II. Thoſe who ſhall not give a ſatisfactory account of the additions made to their fortune ſince 1789, and the means by which they were made, ſhall make reſtitution of the exceſs.

III. This exceſs ſhall be paid into the public treaſury.

The civil war in the South of France wore different aſpects at different periods of this eventful era. The city of Marſeilles was reduced by the republican army under general Cartaux; but Lyons ſtill held out againſt them; and Toulon put itſelf under the protection of the Engliſh. On this occaſion the national convention publiſhed the following addreſs to the French of the ſouthern departments:

'Frenchmen, that crime which you would not believe, becauſe you were not even capable of forming an idea of it—that crime has been perpetrated. One of the principal cities, the moſt important port, and the moſt conſiderable fleet of the republic, has been baſely abandoned to the Engliſh by the inhabitants of Toulon.

'Frenchmen have given themſelves up to the Engliſh! This infamous treaſon, the mere idea of which ought to have filled with indignation and horror Frenchmen, when the ſlaves of a king, has been conceived, meditated, and executed by Frenchmen, who call themſelves republicans.

'This glorious title they preſume to aſſume, even while they declared themſelves rebels to the national authority, to the repreſentation of the people.

'The wretches! and we were thoſe whom they accuſed of being enemies of the republic, and of wiſhing to be the reſtorers of royalty; and the expreſſions which they now dare to addreſs to us, they date the firſt year of the reign of Louis XVII.

'Frenchmen, which of you can henceforth doubt that all thoſe are traitors and conſpirators againſt the republic and againſt the nation, who ſeparate themſelves from the national convention?

'Vengeance, citizens! Periſh all thoſe who have wiſhed the republic to periſh! In adopting the republican conſtitution, which we have preſented to them, the French people have impoſed on us the ſacred duty of exterminating by force every power, every thing in fine which oppoſes its ſupreme will; to compel to live under the laws of the republic, and to force to be republicans, all thoſe who are deſirous to live on the ſoil of France. The French people have willed a republic;

lic; we are charged by the French people to carry their will into execution.

'Departments of the ſouth, you will all be accomplices of this unheard-of crime, all guilty of this rending aſunder of France, if you do not make haſte to puniſh its authors. You will be accuſed by the nation of participating in the odious ſentiments of the inhabitants of Toulon, if, upon being informed of this horrible news, you do not go to ſurround this infamous city: it belongs particularly to you to puniſh them, in order to prove how incapable you are of imitating them. Mark the crime of Lyons, its conſpiracy, and the means which it employs; mark likewiſe the fate which the national juſtice has reſerved for it. Let the avenging toc-ſin, which ſo rapidly aſſembles thouſands of Frenchmen on the frontiers, menaced by the Auſtrians or the Spaniards, reſound through all the ſouthern regions, in order to direct your fury againſt the Toulonese, more criminal even than the emigrant traitors.

'Let your vengeance be inexorable; they are no longer Frenchmen, they are no longer men. They have trampled under foot all the rights, all the titles of humanity. France has loſt them, and England has not gained them. They are now only to be ranked in the catalogue of traitors and conſpirators; let the baſe inhabitants of Toulon, the deteſtation and ſhame of the earth, diſappear from the ſoil of freemen, and let Toulon, its harbour, and its fleet, again be ſubjected to the laws of France.'

On the 7th of September, Ruhl thus addreſſed the convention:—'I announce to the aſſembly, that ten wives of the principal inhabitants of Deux Ponts have been arreſted and taken to Metz. Theſe women will remain as hoſtages till the Pruſſians have reſtored the wives of the deputies of Mentz to freedom, whom they have impriſoned, and on whom they have inflicted the moſt flagitious outrages. When the tree of liberty was hewn down at Mentz, theſe women were obliged to dig up the earth with their fingers till the tree was down, and while they dug they were beaten with ſabres.'—The convention decreed, that the women from Deux Ponts ſhould remain as hoſtages at Metz.

The miniſter of the marine then informed the convention of the dreadful calamity that had befallen the fine town of Cape François, in the iſland of St. Domingo. 'That town,' ſaid he, 'was burnt on the 23d of June. Polverel and Santhonax, the two commiſſioners that had been ſent to reſtore order to the iſland, favoured this act of horror; and the blacks, after having maſſacred the whites, ſet the town on fire, which is now a heap of ruins. All, however, is not yet loſt; there are ſtill ſome brave troops in this unfortunate colony, but they are in need of ſupport; it is neceſſary to ſend them inſtant relief.'—The convention decreed, that the miniſter of the marine and the committee of public ſafety ſhould ſend them forces.

On the ſame day the convention decreed, 'that the law which ſequeſtrates the property of the emigrants, ſhould be extended to all foreigners, ſubjects of the powers with whom the republic was at war.'—But this decree, in the ſequel, was referred to the ſerious deliberation of ſeveral committees united.

On the 9th of September, the report reſpecting the ſurrender of Toulon to the Engliſh was made to the convention, who immediately adopted ſeveral violent reſolutions on the ſubject; in particular, they decreed, 'that the Engliſh, who are in a ſtate of arreſt in France, ſhall be carefully guarded; and the adminiſtrative bodies ſhall anſwer for their detention, under the reſponſibility of each of them; and, moreover, that theſe Engliſh ſhall remain as hoſtages, and ſhall anſwer with their heads for the conduct of admiral Hood toward the repreſentatives of the people now at Toulon, and toward the wife and child of the deputy Freron, and toward the other patriots in that infamous city.'

On the 17th of September, it was announced to the convention, that a rector in the diſtrict of Chaumont, and department of Upper Marne, having married, no perſon, not even the municipality, would go any longer to church, ſo that the rector was obliged to chant his veſpers without any congregation to hear them. The convention decreed, 'that any rector, perſecuted by his pariſhioners, might retire wherever elſe he might think proper; and that his pariſhioners ſhould be compelled to pay his ſalary.'

They then paſſed the two following decrees, with others, preſcribing the regulations under which they were to be enforced.

Art. I. Immediately after the publication of the preſent decree, all ſuſpected perſons who ſhall be found in the territories of the republic ſhall be arreſted.

II. Such perſons ſhall be deemed ſuſpicious who, 1. by their conduct, their relations, or their writings, are attached to

deſpotiſm, and to the federaliſm of the enemies of liberty.—2. Thoſe who ſhall not be able to juſtify themſelves in the manner preſcribed by the law of the 21ſt March, relative to the means by which they live, or to the manner in which they have proved their civiſm.—3. Thoſe who have not obtained citizen's certificates —4. Thoſe who are ſuſpended from their functions by the national convention, or by the national commiſſioners.—5. Thoſe who were nobles, whether in the ſituation of fathers, mothers, ſons, daughters, ſiſters, or brothers, and who have not conſtantly manifeſted their attachment to the revolution.—6. Thoſe who emigrated before the 8th of April, 1792, and ſubſequent to the 1ſt of July, 1789.

After this, on the reports made of the defeats experienced by the garriſons of Bouchain and Cambray, and of the ſurrender of Queſnoy on the 11th inſtant, the convention decreed, that the army under general Houchard had deſerved the gratitude of their country.

On the 18th of September, the reporter of the committee of legiſlation propoſed to reduce the numbers of biſhops and epiſcopal vicars.

Thibault, biſhop of Cantal, having deſcanted on the injuſtice of the ſalary granted to the biſhops, declared that a degree of ariſtocracy prevailed among the biſhops, ſome of whom were better paid than others. He moved that the pay of the biſhops ſhould be reduced to 6000 livres, and that of the vicars to 3000.—[Applauſe.]

Cambon objected to the uſe of the word, ſalary, in ſpeaking of biſhops, becauſe they were not public functionaries. He propoſed that the epiſcopal vicars ſhould be diſmiſſed, that the biſhops ſhould receive no more than 3000 livres, and that a proportionable reduction ſhould take place with reſpect to the incumbents of livings.

The propoſition was applauded; and it was propoſed that it ſhould be put to the vote. Fabre d'Eglantine wiſhed that a larger ſalary ſhould be given to biſhops who ſhould marry. Le Cointre Puyraveaux exclaimed, that the republic acknowledges no perſon in the character of prieſts, but of citizens. At laſt, it was decreed, that the pay of the biſhops ſhould be reduced to 6000 livres; and that the epiſcopal vicars ſhould be ſuppreſſed, and a penſion of 1200 livres granted to them till they ſhall be nominated to a living; and if they refuſe it, their penſions are to ceaſe.

On Saturday, September 21, Barrere made his report on a navigation act; after which the following articles were decreed:

1. All treaties of commerce and navigation, exiſting between France and the powers with which ſhe is at peace, ſhall be executed according to their tenour, without any infringement from the preſent decree.

2. After the 1ſt of January, 1794, no veſſel ſhall be reckoned French, unleſs built in France, or in her colonies.

3. No Engliſh merchandiſe ſhall be imported into France, or the colonies, but by a French veſſel.

4. Foreign veſſels are not to tranſport merchandiſe from one French port to another, under penalty of confiſcation.

On Saturday, September 22, the convention, after hearing a report of the committee of public inſtruction, reſpecting a new diviſion of the year, decreed:

1. The era of the French ſhall be reckoned from the day of the foundation of the republic, which took place from September 22, 1792, at the moment when the ſun entered the equinoctial line in the ſign of the balance.

2. The common or vulgar era is aboliſhed; the year is divided into twelve months, each of thirty days, after which five days ſhall enſue, which ſhall make part of no month whatever.

3. Each month ſhall be divided into three parts, of ten days each.

4. The months ſhall bear the names of the liberty and equality of the people, of the regeneration of the mountain, of the republic, of the tennis court, of unity, fraternity, of the pikes, and the ſans culottes, &c.

5. The days ſhall bear the names of the level, of the cap of liberty, of the national cockade, of the plough, of the compaſs, of the faſces, of cannon, of oak, of reſt, &c.

6. Every four years Olympic games ſhall be celebrated, in honour and rejoicing of the French revolution.

This report, the reſult of the obſervations of the firſt French aſtronomers, was crowned with the loudeſt burſts of applauſe.

In a commercial and political light, the confuſion that theſe abſurd regulations will introduce may be eaſily foreſeen; but the avowed object ſeems to be a ſtudied contempt of Chriſtianity, that divine religion of which theſe philoſophical politicians are utterly ignorant; the purity and ſimplicity of which, with its beneficial influence on the happineſs of men here, as well as on their

their everlasting welfare, are as distinct from the tendency of their established and lately revered superstition, as the suggestions of true political wisdom are from the desperate effervescence of superficial views and half-formed conceptions.'

On Tuesday, September the 24th, the minister of war announced, that the executive council had appointed general Jourdan to the command of the army of the north, vacant by the removal of general Houchard; general Ferrand to the command of the army of the Ardennes, vacant by the promotion of Jourdan; general Delmas to the command of the army of the Rhine, in the room of general Lauxtremont, displaced; and general Moreau to the command of the army of the Moselle, vacant by the removal of general Scanbourg.

A discussion ensuing on this occasion, St. André said: 'Houchard is the approver of Custine's system. Let it be known, that if those men had not been displaced, the northern frontier would have been irrecoverably lost.—Remember, that the army of the Moselle, when it was marching to the relief of Mentz, went only at the rate of one league a day, and returned at the rate of eight or nine leagues. Why should there be the difference, if the generals had not a regular system of treason? Interrogate the soldiers of this army of the Moselle, and it will be seen that Houchard is detested. With what pride did he receive the representatives of the people, who wished to bring him back to the paths of patriotism?'

On the 27th of September, Barrere presented the report of the committee of public safety, on the dismission of general Houchard: 'Four facts,' said he, 'exposed Houchard to strong suspicions. The first, was,—That after defeating the English, he did not throw them into the sea. 2. That when he had surrounded the Dutch, he did not cut them to pieces. 3. That he sent no succours to the troops assassinated near Cambray. 4. That he abandoned Menin, and in his retreat, exposed the rear of his army to considerable danger.'

Billaud Varrennes then rose: 'Know,' said he, 'that you have formidable armies, which will no longer be enervated by dissension and division. Know, that your fleets are preparing, even at the moment I am speaking, to inflict a terrible vengeance on Great Britain. Your committee of public safety has determined to attack Rome in Rome herself. One hundred thousand men are ready to make a descent upon Great Britain. If your committee are supported by the convention, the English will soon be convinced that Frenchmen are as brave as themselves, and scorn to conquer by the aid of corruption. They will be convinced that the fate of Carthage impends over their proud capital, whose head must soon be bowed down to the dust.'

What must a sensible observer, experienced in the history of mankind, imagine, when he thus sees the extremes of arrogance and violence, follow so soon the extremes of unmeaning folly and absurdity?

On the 30th of September, De Launay made an admirable report, with respect to the confiscation of all such property and effects in France as belonged to the subjects of the confederate powers leagued against the republic.

On the 2d of October, Chenier, in the name of the committee of public instruction, pronounced an eulogium on the memory of the famous philosopher, Descartes; in consequence of which the convention decreed, that Descartes had merited the honours due to great men; that his body should be removed to the French Pantheon; and that these words should be engraven on his tomb—

Au nom du Peuple François,
La Convention Nationalle à René Descartes, 1793.
L'an second de la Republique.

On Thursday, October 3, the report against Brissot, and the other arrested deputies, which had been so long and anxiously expected, was presented. The convention observed the most profound silence during the reading of it. After it was concluded, the following decree was proposed:

1. That the convention should accuse the arrested deputies, forty-three in number (among the rest Philippe Egalité,) of having conspired against the unity and indivisibility of the republic.

2. They shall be immediately tried by the revolutionary tribunal.

3. The present decree is not to produce any alteration in the accusation against Buzot, Louvet, and Petion, who are accused of being traitors to their country.

4. Those who signed the protests of the 6th and 19th of June last, and who are not mentioned in the first article of the decree, shall immediately be put in a state of arrest, and their effects sealed up. The committee of general safety shall prepare a separate report relative to them.—They were fifty-four in number.

It was alſo decreed, that the names of all the members included in the decree ſhould be called over; and that the arreſted members ſhould be ſent to priſon.

The arreſted deputies were then brought to the bar, whoſe names were then called over. After they had retired from the bar, they were conducted into the room where petitioners wait. They there drew up a petition, in which they made a proteſtation of their innocence, and ſwore that they had never conſpired againſt their country. The reading of this addreſs was interrupted by a member, who moved the order of the day.

Billaud Varennes immediately roſe. 'The convention,' ſaid he, 'have juſt performed a ſignal act of juſtice.—But why this delay with reſpect to that woman who has occaſioned the ſhedding of ſo much blood? Need I mention the name of the woman to whom I allude? Need I ſay that ſhe is the widow of Louis Capet?—I move that her trial before the revolutionary tribunal begin this week.' The motion was agreed to.

On the 4th of October, Geoffroy obſerved, that as the remains of Deſcartes, in conſequence of the decree lately paſſed, were removed to the national monument intended for the reception of great men, the ſtatue of *this* great man, depoſited in the gallery of antiques at the Louvre, ſhould be removed to the Pantheon. Thurot ſeconded the motion, and propoſed, that the removal ſhall take place on the day of the ceremony. Both motions were adopted.

Geoffroy moved, that the ſtatue of Fenelon, depoſited in the ſame gallery, ſhould likewiſe be removed to the Pantheon. 'Fenelon,' ſaid Bazire, 'was the friend of kings, and his Telemaque was written to prove that a monarchical is the beſt of all governments. As a philoſopher, as a friend to morals, as a man of literature, he merits our homage; but as a politician, we ought to reject him.' This ſecond propoſition was got rid of by the order of the day.

Billaud Varennes denounced Dubois Crance and Gauthier, for not having proſecuted the ſiege of Lyons with ſufficient vigour; and for having continued Kellermann in his command after he had been diſplaced by a decree. The convention recalled theſe two commiſſioners, and ordered them to be arreſted.

On the 7th of October, a deputation of republican females was admitted to the bar. One of them ſaid, 'Legiſlators, your religion was yeſterday ſurpriſed. Intriguers and calumniators, not being able to find crimes among us, have dared to compare us to the Medicis, to an Engliſh Eliſabeth, to an Antoniette, and to a Charlotte Corday. Nature has without doubt produced a monſter which has deprived us of the friend of the people; but are we anſwerable for that crime? Was Corday a member of our ſociety? We are more generous than the men; our ſex has produced but one monſter, while, for theſe four years paſt, we have been betrayed and aſſaſſinated by numberleſs monſters of the maſculine ſex. Our rights are thoſe of the people; and if we are oppreſſed, we know how to oppoſe reſiſtance to oppreſſion.' This petition was referred to the committee of general ſafety.

Romme, as organ of the committee of public inſtitution, cauſed to be decreed two additional articles to the laws reſpecting the republican calendar, the heads of which are as follows: 'All public acts may be paſſed and enregiſtered any day of the month and year; the adminiſtrations and the tribunals can only have holidays on the 10th, 20th, and 30th of the month.'

On the 8th of October, the convention decreed the ſuppreſſion of their Eaſt India company, and of all financering companies.

On the 9th of October, the convention decreed the total prohibition of the ſelling or wearing any articles of Britiſh manufacture, under the moſt ſevere penalties.

The ſame day they decreed, that all the Engliſh, Scotch, Iriſh, and Hanoverians, of either ſex, and all the ſubjects of the king of Great Britain generally, who are at preſent within any part of the territories of the republic, ſhall immediately be put in a ſtate of arreſt in houſes of ſecurity, and ſeals ſhall be put upon their papers; and the effects of thoſe ſubjects of the ſame nation who are abſent, ſhall be ſeized, and confiſcated for the benefit of the republic; that all retainers, warehouſemen, &c. of ſuch effects, ſhall be obliged to make a declaration of them within 24 hours after the publication of the preſent decree, to the adminiſtration of their diſtrict, under pain of ten years impriſonment in chains, and fines equal to the value of the undeclared object, half to be given to the informer; that any perſon lodging individuals of the above deſcription, and not making his declaration within 24 hours, ſhall be puniſhed, with ten years impriſonment in irons; but that workmen born in the territory of the

king

king of Great Britain, at preſent occupied and employed in France, and having been ſo for ſix months; and children under 12 years of age, placed in French ſchools, are excepted from this decree; ſeals however to be put upon their papers.

On the 11th of October, a decree paſſed, by which the whole power of the French government is now veſted in the committee of public ſafety. The following is the ſubſtance of the decree paſſed on this head: The proviſionary government of the republic is revolutionary until peace is concluded. The executive council, the generals, and, in ſhort, all the conſtituted authorities, are placed under the orders of the committee of public ſafety. No meaſures whatever can be undertaken without their authority. The revolutionary laws ſhall be executed without any delay. On the 1ſt of March next, Paris ſhall be proviſioned for one year. The revolutionary army ſhall be immediately placed in a ſtate of activity, under the orders of this committee. In every town where inſurrections are viſible, a garriſon ſhall be ſent into it, at the expence of the town, till peace is concluded.

On the 12th of October, the convention received advice from general Doppet, of the capture of the city of Lyons. The chiefs of the rebels, he ſaid, had eſcaped with an army of 2000 men. But ſubſequent advices announced, that they were purſued, cut in pieces, and that their treaſure was taken. After reading theſe advices, the convention paſſed the following decree:

'The national convention after having heard the report of the committee of public ſafety, decrees:

Art. I. 'There ſhall be named by the national convention, upon the preſentation of the committee of public ſafety, an extraordinary commiſſion compoſed of five members, in order to puniſh the revoluioniſts of Lyons according to military law, and without delay.

II. 'All the inhabitants of Lyons ſhall be diſarmed; their arms ſhall be immediately diſtributed among the defenders of the republic. A part ſhall be reſtored to the patriots of Lyons who have been oppreſſed by the rich and the counter-revolutioniſts.

III. 'The city of Lyons ſhall be deſtroyed. Whatever was inhabited by a rich man, ſhall be demoliſhed. The poor-houſe, the dwellings of ſlaughtered and proſcribed patriots, the edifices ſpecially employed to induſtry, and the monuments conſecrated to humanity and public inſtruction, ſhall alone remain.

IV. 'The name of Lyons ſhall be effaced from the liſt of the towns of the republic. The re-union of houſes preſerved ſhall henceforth bear the name of Ville Affranchie.

V. 'A column ſhall be raiſed upon the ruins of Lyons, to atteſt to poſterity the crimes and puniſhments of the royaliſts of that city, with this inſcription:

'Lyons warred againſt Liberty;
'Lyons is no more.
'The 18th day of the 1ſt month,
'Second year of the French Republic,
'One and indiviſible.'

VI. 'The repreſentatives of the people ſhall immediately nominate commiſſioners to make a liſt of all the property which belonged to the rich and the counter-revoluioniſts of Lyons, that the reſolutions of the convention may be immediately carried into execution.'

[To be continued.]

EXECUTION *of the* QUEEN *of* FRANCE.

THE ſufferings of the unfortunate Marie Antoniette, late queen of France, were terminated on Wedneſday, the 16th of October, when ſhe ſuffered under the axe of the guillotine; after having been condemned on the preceding day by the revolutionary tribunal, 'as guilty of having been acceſſary to, and having co-operated in, different manœuvres againſt the liberty of France; of having entertained a correſpondence with the enemies of the republic: and of having participated in a plot tending to kindle civil war in the interior of the republic, by arming citizens againſt each other.'

When the ſentence of the revolutionary tribunal was read to this unhappy princeſs, ſhe caſt down her eyes, and did not again lift them up. 'Have you nothing to anſwer upon the determination of the law?' ſaid the preſident to her. 'Nothing,' ſhe anſwered. 'And you, officious defenders?' ſaid the preſident, addreſſing himſelf to her counſel. 'Our miſſion is fulfilled with reſpect to the widow Capet,' ſaid they.

The execution took place at half paſt eleven o'clock in the forenoon. The whole armed force in Paris was on foot, from the palace of juſtice to the Place de

la Revolution. The ſtreets were lined by two very cloſe rows of armed citizens. As ſoon as the queen left the Conciergerie, to aſcend the ſcaffold, the multitude which was aſſembled in the courts and the ſtreets, cried out *bravo*, in the midſt of plaudits. Marie Antoniette had on a white looſe dreſs, and her hands were tied behind her back. She looked firmly round her on all ſides. She was accompanied by the late rector of St. Landry, and on the ſcaffold preſerved her natural dignity of deportment.

After the execution, three young perſons dipped their handkerchiefs in her blood. They were immediately arreſted.

Fronſon de Coudray and Chaveau de la Garde, the counſel for Marie Antoniette, had been put in a ſtate of arreſt before her ſentence was pronounced, by order of the committee of general ſafety. The order ſays, that this is a meaſure of general ſafety; that the arreſt ſhall laſt only twenty-four hours, and that every attention ſhall be paid to thoſe priſoners.

With reſpect to the particulars of the trial, we think it requiſite to poſtpone them till our next number, when it is probable, that we ſhall be able to lay ſuch an account before our readers, as we may depend upon.

LONDON GAZETTES.

From the London Gazette, September 30.

Whitehall, September 28.

BY a diſpatch, received laſt night from the right hon. lord Mulgrave, dated Toulon, Sept. 8, it appears that his lordſhip had arrived there on the 6th, and had been deſired by lord Hood to take upon himſelf the command of the troops until his majeſty's pleaſure ſhould be known. It further appears, that one of the advanced poſts appearing to be out of the regular military line of defence, it had been determined to evacuate it; but before the order for carrying that meaſure into execution arrived, Carteaux, the general of the republican party, (who had collected about 5000 men from Marſeilles and Nice to harraſs this garriſon) attacked the poſt, and drove back the Spaniards who had occupied it, with the loſs of thirty-five men killed, two officers and twenty men wounded, one officer and fifteen men miſſing. Of two prieſts, who went out after the action to give abſolution to the wounded, one has been found murdered, and the other is miſſing. The corps at this poſt conſiſted of 400 Spaniſh troops, and 150 of the French national guards from Toulon. A detachment of the Britiſh brigade were marched out of Toulon to cover their retreat, which ſervice they performed without difficulty, having only one private ſoldier wounded.

From the London Gazette, October 5.

Whitehall, October 5.

Extract of a Letter received Yeſterday by the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his Majeſty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department, from the Right Hon. Lord Mulgrave, dated Toulon, September 16.

Nothing of importance has occurred ſince my letter of September 8. The enemy have been conſtantly in ſight, and have puſhed their patroles very near our out-poſts, from whom we have occaſionally taken a few priſoners; but we have remained on our part conſtantly on the defenſive, to avoid fatiguing the troops, who continue in good health. The redoubts and forts at the out-poſts are in general ſo conſiderably ſtrengthened as to leave little to apprehend from any offenſive efforts of the enemy; though no part of the re-enforcements, which were required from different quarters, were arrived.

On the 15th, the enemy marched a conſiderable corps of troops, of which about 400 infantry and 200 cavalry paſſed in ſight of our poſts from the eaſt ſide of the town, to re-enforce Carteaux's main body, which is poſted on the hills to the weſtward. I am certain of the cordial cooperation of the Spaniſh admiral Gravina, who commands the troops of his nation on ſhore, and whoſe active zeal, accommodating diſpoſition, and even temper, give every poſſible facility to the execution of the public ſervice, and the ſupport of the common cauſe.

It is with the higheſt ſatisfaction I inform you that the Britiſh troops have very particularly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their moderate conduct and orderly behaviour. From the inhabitants I have hitherto only heard praiſes of their good order.

Whitehall, October 5.

Extract of a Letter from the Earl of Elgin, his Majesty's Envoy-extraordinary at the Court of Brussels, to the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, his Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, dated Haumont, Sept. 29, 1793.

It is with the utmost satisfaction that I have it in my power to inform your lordship of the complete success with which his serene highness prince Cobourg has this day passed the Sambre, driven into the entrenched camp of Maubeuge all the detached corps of French, and formed the investment of the camp and fortress.

The army was in march at day-break. General Clairfait's column crossed at Brelaimort, and having met with very little resistance, was, in a very short time, in the position, which according to the disposition it was meant to take, between Aulnois and Baschamp.

The column of general Colloredo crossed at Pont and Haumont, and so effectually were the enemy surprised in the camp of St. Remy Malbati, that their tents and baggage were taken. The rout soon began, but the pursuit was interrupted by great inequalities in the ground, and, accordingly, the loss of the French in killed and wounded, and in prisoners, did not exceed the number of 200 men. The Austrians, however, took nine pieces of cannon. General Colloredo has pitched his camp between Haumont and the Bois de Beaufort, both of which he occupies.

General de la Tour crossed the Sambre between Jeumont and Marpeut, and with a degree of success similar to that of general Colloredo's column, as he surprised the enemy's camp at Bequignies. He took some prisoners, and two pieces of cannon; and as his march was not much impeded by the nature of the country, he killed 300 men. He has advanced to Cerfontaine, where he has taken up his position: he occupies the forest of Bonpere, near Ronsies, and his left flank extends by Terere la Petite, toward the corps of general Colloredo, with whom he is at this moment forming a junction. Colonel Seckendorff, who marched from Charleroy, has advanced, without much resistance, to Collnett.

Prince Cobourg's head quarters are at Haumont.

In a word, every object proposed in this enterprise has been obtained, and with the loss of fifty men killed and wounded: two or three officers are slightly wounded.

From the London Gazette, October 12.

Whitehall, October 12. By accounts from the right hon. sir William Hamilton, K. B. his majesty's envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary at the court of Naples, dated the 17th of September, it appears, that on the 11th, captain Nelson, in his majesty's ship Agamemnon, arrived there with dispatches from lord Hood, dated off Toulon, the 27th of August, and a letter of the 31st, from lord Hugh Conway, who had left Toulon in the possession of lord Hood, and met with captain Nelson at sea; that sir William Hamilton having communicated this intelligence to general Acton, 2000 of his Sicilian majesty's best troops were embarked on the 16th, on board of two line of battle ships, two frigates, two corvettes, and one Neapolitan transport vessel. That a Spanish frigate, returning to Toulon, had likewise taken some of the troops on board; that three more battalions were that night to embark at Gaeta, on board of two Neapolitan frigates, two brigantines, and nine large polacres. That, in a week or ten days, the Neapolitan government were to send off to Toulon the remaining ships, and 2000 more men, with thirty pieces of regimental artillery, and plenty of provisions; and that, should the wind remain as it then was, those succours might reach Toulon in five days, or sooner.

[This gazette contains his majesty's order in council, allowing trade to be carried on to and with the city and port of Toulon, and the dependencies thereof, notwithstanding the war between Great Britain with France, under certain regulations therein mentioned.]

From the London Gazette, October 19.

Madrid, October 2. Intelligence has been received here, that, on the 22d of September, general Ricardos obtained a complete victory over the French, near Truillas. The only particulars yet known are, that the enemy began the attack, in five columns, at seven o'clock in the morning; that they were repulsed and defeated by the Spanish cavalry, and by the columns of infantry which were ordered out, under the command of don Juan Courten and the count de la Union; that the loss of the Spaniards was very small, but that of the enemy was estimated, on the whole, at five or six thousand men, including about fifteen hundred prisoners, and many more killed, a great havoc having

having been made by the grape-shot and side arms; and that ten pieces of cannon, six cart loads of muskets, and a quantity of baggage, had been taken. The number of the enemy was reported to be twenty three or twenty-four thousand men, though by some estimated at no more than twenty thousand.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, October 23.

Whitehall, Oct. 25. The dispatches, of which the following are extracts and copies, were received, on Sunday last, at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Toulon, September 26, 1793.

On the morning of the 18th of this month, the enemy opened two mosqued batteries, one of three, the other of two guns, at the head of the Inner Harbour, at la Petite Garenne. An incessant fire was kept up during the whole of the day, between the batteries of the enemy and a gun-boat and French frigate, manned by English seamen, which had been placed near the Poudriere for the defence of the head of the harbour, and to cover the fort of Malbousquet toward the water; that fort fired occasionally at the enemy's batteries with some effect, although they were covered on that side by a grove of pine trees. On the 19th the enemy opened a fresh battery, to the left of the others, at Les Gaux, and his majesty's ship St. George, with a second gun-boat, being brought into the Petite Rade, a cannonade continued during the whole day, and toward evening the batteries of the enemy were silenced; but one of the gun-boats had suffered so much that she was towed off, and she sunk the next morning, the officers and men having been taken out of her.

It became necessary to collect a force to occupy La Grasse; I took, therefore, fifty men from Fort de la Malgue, the strongest and least exposed of our posts, and, by leaving but one relief for the duties of Toulon, we were enabled to collect 350 Spaniards and 150 British, exclusive of officers and non-commissioned officers, the Spanish under the command of colonel don Rafael Chavuru, and the British troops under the command of captain Brereton of the 30th regiment. The detachment embarked from Toulon on the 20th, at twelve o'clock at night, admiral Gravina and myself, with all the Spanish colonels of the garrison, and some French engineers, attending, to place the troops in the post they were to occupy. We proceeded across the harbour, and landed, at about two o'clock in the morning of the 21st, at fort Balaguier, and marched immediately forward to reconnoitre the Heights de la Grasse, which consist of a ridge, divided at the top by three distinct Knolls, covered with wood, with small dips or vallies between each, the whole rising very considerably inland, the ridge terminating with a rapid descent at the western extremity, which commands a complete view of the whole extent of the enemy's position to the westward of Toulon.

It was determined to take post on the lowest and easternmost Knoll, which is about five hundred yards from the landing-place. Having distributed the troops into the best position the post would admit of, admiral Gravina returned with me before noon to Toulon, to order the necessary supplies for the troops, and some guns for the defence of the post. Colonel don Rafael Chavuru remaining with the command of the post, and captain Brereton, with the command of the British troops, under him. At about five o'clock in the afternoon, the enemy advanced along the Upper Knolls of the Hauteur de Grasse, to the number, as we have since learnt, of about 700 men; and, having driven in the piquets, began an attack under cover of the woods, forming themselves upon a steep ascent, in front of the post, in three lines, so as to have the advantage of a triple fire; from which our troops were, in some degree, protected by trunks of trees, which had been felled, and placed to serve as a breast-work. The firing continued for an hour, when the enemy were repulsed, with the loss, on the part of the British, of one rank and file killed, one captain, and three rank and file wounded, (I am happy to say none of them dangerously) and of the Spaniards one rank and file killed, and seven wounded. The enemy, by accounts we have since received from deserters, lost twelve killed, and one colonel and twenty-three wounded. This attempt of the enemy served to convince the Spanish and French officers of the necessity of occupying the advanced position at the western extremity of La Hauteur de Grasse; a Spanish colonel was sent, at day-break, to take possession of it.

I went with lord Hood and admiral Gravina

Gravina to trace out the line of entrenchments, and to place a battery of three twenty-four pounders on a ſpot which commands every point within their range. This poſt completely covers the outward Roadſted; the two Knolls in the rear of it being occupied by ſmall detachments, to communicate with the landing-place at Fort Balaguier. A reinforcement of 100 Spaniards from the ſhips, and of eighty Britiſh marines, (who had been poſted at Les Sablettes to cover the naval hoſpital, which is protected now by the occupation of the Hauteur de Graſſe) render that poſt ſufficiently ſtrong to reſiſt any future attempts the enemy can make on that ſide. It is owing to the active zeal and great exertions of captain Tyler and lieutenants Serecold and Briſbane, of the navy, with the ſeamen under their command, that heavy cannon have been dragged, with infinite labour and extraordinary expediſion, up a very ſteep aſcent, and that this moſt important poſt has been put, in a ſhort time, into a ſtate of defence.

For the more regular and convenient conduct of the ſervice, I found it neceſſary to divide the ſmall detachments of different Britiſh corps under my command into two battalions. I have put the firſt battalion under the orders of captain Moncrief, of the 11th regiment, the ſecond under captain Brereton, of the 30th regiment, the two eldeſt captains on this ſervice. I cannot do ſufficient juſtice to the zeal, intelligence and activity of thoſe officers, from whoſe exertions I have found the greateſt aſſiſtance, in the conſtant attention which I am obliged to give to poſts, occupied by very inadequate numbers, and at diſtances which render my daily attendance at each of them utterly impoſſible. Any mark of his majeſty's favour ſhewn to thoſe two old and deſerving officers, I can venture to aſſure you, will not be beſtowed on perſons deficient, either in zeal or ability: indeed I ſhould not render the juſtice which I owe to the ſmall body of Britiſh troops under my command, if I did not repreſent the chearfulneſs and alacrity, with which they ſuffer inceſſant fatigue in poſts in which they muſt be conſidered as being conſtantly on duty, and every hour liable to attack; I can, however, venture to repeat my former aſſurance, that (unleſs ſickneſs ſhould be the conſequence of this fatigue) our preſent ſtate of defence is ſuch as may give reaſonable grounds to be confident of the ſecurity of the place.

The conſtant fire kept up by the enemy for the laſt four days, has wounded one lieutenant of the navy, one ſeaman, and four rank and file. I have to regret that lieutenant Newnham, of the navy, who commanded in Fort Pomet, and whoſe vigilance, activity and reſources, ſupplied almoſt every local defect of his poſts, is neceſſarily removed for a time from the command, on account of the wound which he yeſterday received in the thigh. Lieutenant Tupper, of his majeſty's ſhip Windſor Caſtle, is ſent to take the command.

Return of Britiſh killed and wounded, on September 21, 1793.

Total. One rank and file killed; two officers, one ſeaman, ſeven rank and file wounded.

Captain Smith of the 25th regiment, and lieutenant Newnham of the royal navy, wounded.

MULGRAVE,
Acting Brigadier-general.

Toulon, Sept. 27, 1793.

Sir,

Since I cloſed my diſpatch to you this day, the firſt diviſion of Neapolitan troops came into the harbour, conſiſting of 2000 men, all in perfect health, convoyed by two ſhips of ſeventy four guns each, two frigates and two ſloops: they have been eleven days on their paſſage. 2000 more troops were to ſail in three days after that of their departure, and a third diviſion alſo of 2000 men were to ſail in twenty days from the day on which the firſt diviſion ſailed. After the confident manner in which I have ventured to aſſure you that no impreſſion was likely to be made on our poſts, inadequately garriſoned as they were by our original ſmall body, I need hardly expreſs the comfortable ſecurity I feel with our laſt reinforcements. I have the honour to be, &c.

MULGRAVE.

Toulon, Sept. 30, 1793.

Sir,

The ſquadron under admiral Gell having been delayed by contrary winds, I have the opportunity of informing you, in addition to my laſt diſpatches, that, on the 28th inſtant, the firſt diviſion of the Neapolitan troops diſembarked under the command of brigadier-general Pignatelli. The troops are in perfect health, and are a very fine body of men, and well appointed.

The detachment of the king of Sardinia's troops, conſiſts entirely of grenadiers and chaſſeurs, and are of the beſt of his

Sardinian

Sardinian majeſty's troops. I have great confidence in the zeal and willingneſs expreſſed, both by the officers and ſoldiers of this corps.

It is with extreme concern that I have to inform you of the loſs which the ſervice has ſuſtained, by the death of lieutenant Newnham of the navy; to whoſe private and profeſſional merits the ſincere and marked regret of the Spaniſh as well as Engliſh officers, who were witneſſes of his able and active conduct, bears the moſt honourable teſtimony. His wound, which was not at firſt judged to be dangerous, took an unfavourable turn, which proved fatal in a very ſhort period. I have the honour to be, &c.

MULGRAVE,
Acting Brigadier-general.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

Whitehall, October 22. Laſt night, the right hon. lord George Conway arrived at the office of the right hon. lord Grenville, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, with a diſpatch from the earl of Yarmouth, of which the following is an extract.

Weiſſembourg, October 14, 1793.
Auſtrian Head-Quarters.

Yeſterday morning, at three o'clock, general Wurmſer made his projected attack upon the lines of the Lautre, on various points at the ſame time. I have the ſatisfaction to ſay that he is in poſſeſſion of every part of them. Lautrebourg ſurrendered, without any conditions, between three and four in the evening, after being evacuated by the enemy, who, from the prodigious number of redoubts of which they were in poſſeſſion, and the natural ſtrength of the poſition, might have held out a ſiege of ſeveral days.

This town reſiſted ſome time longer. It is ſurrounded by a large ditch, and was defended by redoubts, from which the French cannonaded the Auſtrians for ſeveral hours. It is alſo connected with the Geilberg, a mountain which ſo entirely commands the place, that if the French had determined on deriving every advantage from their ſituation, the Auſtrians could not have entered into poſſeſſion of it, without further ſucceſſes in the mountains. A part of the town was burnt in the courſe of the ſtruggle; and the French before they retreated, ſet fire to their magazines, both here and at Alſtadt. In other parts of this very complicated operation, in which ſix different columns had diſtinct plans to execute, great ſucceſs attended the Auſtrians. They ſucceſſively carried by aſſault all the different redoubts which had been conſtructed in the front of the French camps, of which the principal one fell into their hands, with all their tents ſtanding, ſeveral caiſſons, nine ſtandards, and twenty-ſix cannons of very great calibre. As theſe different actions are but juſt over, and the Auſtrian corps are very remote from each other, it is impoſſible for me to tranſmit to your lordſhip any account of the killed, wounded or taken on either ſide. The army has been fourteen hours under arms, almoſt continually engaged in a very active purſuit, and often expoſed to a moſt tremendous fire.

We have as yet no diſtinct account of the operations of the duke of Brunſwick's army yeſterday in the mountain, but a very great cannonade was heard on that ſide during the whole day.

Right hon. Lord Grenville.

Whitehall, October 22. A letter from Sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the force under the command of his royal highneſs the duke of York, was received this evening by the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, of which the following is a copy.

Engel Fontaine, October 18, 1793.

Sir,

I had the honour of informing you, in my laſt diſpatch, that his royal highneſs, at the earneſt requeſt of the prince of Cobourg, had marched, with a part of the troops under his command, for this place. They arrived here upon the 16th. The prince, being acquainted with his royal highneſs' intention, had been enabled to draw from thence four battalions, to ſtrengthen his other poſts; a fifth battalion followed thoſe upon his royal highneſs' arrival.

The enemy, having collected in extraordinary numbers, attacked the corps under the command of general Clairfayt, which was poſted with its right near Birlemont, and its left near the village of Wattigwies, upon the 15th and 16th. Upon the former day the left wing of the enemy was entirely defeated; having advanced into the plain which lay upon that ſide between the two armies, they were charged by the Imperial cavalry, and driven back, with great ſlaughter and the loſs of twelve pieces of cannon. The attack which they made

made upon the left of the Auſtrians was more obſtinately ſupported; they were, however, finally repulſed.

Upon the 16th, the enemy having drawn the greateſt part of their force to the right, again attacked the left of general Clairfayt's corps, and the village of Wattigwies.

They could upon this ſide approach within cannon ſhot of the Auſtrians, under cover of an immenſe wood, called the *Haye d'Aveſnes*; which, when they were repulſed, ſecured their retreat. They brought a great quantity of heavy artillery to the edge of this wood, under the protection of which they attacked the village. The utmoſt firmneſs and bravery were diſplayed by the Auſtrian troops upon this occaſion. The enemy were ſeveral times repulſed with great loſs; they were repeatedly driven from the village after they had carried it; but being enabled, by great ſuperiority of numbers, to bring continually freſh troops to the point of attack, they at laſt ſucceeded in maintaining the poſſeſſion of that poſt.

The communication between general Clairfayt's corps and that of general La Tour, which obſerved the intrenched camp near Maubeuge, being by this means cut off, it was judged neceſſary by the prince of Cobourg to abandon the poſition which had been taken for the purpoſe of inveſting Maubeuge; the army repaſſed the Sambre in the night without the ſmalleſt loſs. Lieutenant-general Benzowſky, who commanded a detached corps upon the left of the army, defeated a corps which was oppoſed to him, killed a great number of the enemy, took 400 priſoners and eleven pieces of cannon. Count Haddick, who was detached by general La Tour, likewiſe gained a conſiderable advantage, penetrated to Sorbe Chateau, and took three pieces of cannon.

In the two engagements, the Auſtrians took twenty-four pieces of cannon and two howitzers, without the loſs of one upon their part. They have had about 2000 men killed and wounded. There can be no doubt that the loſs of the enemy has been much more conſiderable. The Auſtrians now occupy the left bank of the Sambre. No certain accounts have been yet received of the further motion of the enemy. I am, &c.

(Signed) J. MURRAY.

AFFAIRS of POLAND.

Warſaw, Sept. 28.

THE laſt news from Grodno of the 25th inſt. prove, that our conjectures with regard to the fatal event of negociation with Pruſſia were not groundleſs. It ended as it began, or rather ſurpaſſed all the violences exerciſed on the 2d of this month.

On the 23d the Ruſſian ambaſſador, early in the morning, opened this negociation, by arreſting four members of the diet, viz. Kraſnodemeſki, of Liva; Szydlouſki, of Plock; Mikerſki, of Wyſzogrod; and Skarynſki, of Lomza; whom he ſent off immediately under a guard to the reſpective places they repreſent.

Next, he ordered two battalions of grenadiers, with three pieces of cannon, to ſurround and block up all the avenues and gates of the caſtle.

After theſe preliminaries, the ſitting of the diet began. Its formal opening was ſtrongly oppoſed, on the ground of a former decree, that all deliberations ſhould ceaſe, whenever any violent act ſhould be employed againſt a member of the legiſlative body.

In conſequence, before the reading of the ambaſſador's notes was allowed, two deputations were ſucceſſively ſent to him, to demand the liberty of the arreſted members. They were anſwered, both verbally and by a note, with abſolute refuſal. The notes were then read. The houſe conceiving itſelf to be in a paſſive ſtate, as being under foreign arms, and deprived of a free deliberation, would not proceed for many hours on any buſineſs; during which time they witneſſed a moſt diſtreſſing and humiliating ſcene: a Ruſſian general, ſtrutting to and fro in the middle of the ſenate, in the preſence of the king on the throne, perſuading and menacing alternately, the members to ſign, unconditionally, the demands of the king of Pruſſia.

Five hours were ſpent in this manner; at laſt, on the motion of count Ankwicz, nuncio of Cracow, it was agreed to make a ſolemn declaration, or proteſt, againſt the violent meaſures employed by the Ruſſian ambaſſador on the 2d of September and this day; and that, to prove a total inactivity of the diet, inſtead of expreſſing their ſentiments in the uſual manner, either by voting, or by acclamation, they ſhould keep a mournful ſilence when the martial ſhould propoſe the project in queſtion. This was accordingly adopted,

Thus was obtained the conſent to a ceſſion, which is to juſtify it in the eyes of Europe and poſterity. Thus ended this extraordinary negociation, unexampled in the annals of diplomatic hiſtory; and thus, in conſequence, was ſigned the treaty of ceſſion of our provinces to Ruſſia.

The three notes of the Ruſſian ambaſſador, preſented that day, are curious and ſingular; they will be known to the public. The proteſt, however, of the diet, ought to be particularly noted by the preſent generation, and all poſterity.

DECLARATION of the DIET.

'Surrounded cloſely by foreign troops on the 2d of this month, threatened with further invaſion of the territory of the republic by the Pruſſian armies, to its uttermoſt ruin, and oppreſſed by innumerable violences, the ſtates in diet aſſembled were forced to give leave to their deputation for ſigning the impoſed treaty, with addition of a few clauſes, and ſuch only as the dictating power itſelf ſeemed, in pity, to approve of. But, with grief and ſurprize, we find by the ſad experience of this day, that the court of Berlin is not ſatisfied therewith. We ſee freſh acts of violence forcing a new project upon us; and, in order to ſupport it, the ſame preponderant power, not contented with inveſting the place of our deliberations by an armed foreign force, with addreſſing to us notes full of menaces, ſeizes from among us, and carries off our members; and, by an unexampled proceeding, keeps us, the king, bent under the weight of age, and under ſo manifold calamities; and us, the ſtates of the republic, confined and impriſoned in the ſenate.

'Thus ſituated, we do declare in the moſt ſolemn manner, that, unable to prevent, even with the riſk of our lives, the effects of the oppreſſive force, we leave to our poſterity, happier perhaps than ourſelves, thoſe means of ſaving our dear country, whereof we are bereft at preſent; and thus the project ſent to us by the Ruſſian ambaſſador, though contrary to our laws, wiſhes, and opinions, forced by the above means to accept, we do accept.

'Done at Grodno the 24th of September. Signed and ingroſſed in the public records, according to law.'

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

SEPTEMBER 28.

ON Tueſday morning, about one o'clock a fire broke out at Cowdray Houſe, the ſeat of viſcount Montague, near Midhurſt; which in a ſhort time deſtroyed that ancient and noble ſtructure, with all the capital paintings, furniture, &c. The flames were ſo rapid, that it was impoſſible to ſave any thing of value.

SEPTEMBER 30.

On Saturday, at a common hall, held at Guildhall, Mr. alderman Le Meſurier was choſen lord-mayor for the year enſuing, being next in rotation to Mr. alderman Watſon, who is now abroad in the ſervice of his country.

Saliſbury, Sept. 30. On Saturday afternoon, immediately after four o'clock, a conſiderable agitation or concuſſion of the earth was very ſenſibly felt by the inhabitants of this city and neighbourhood, many of whom were much alarmed, and ſome even quitted their houſes. The ſhock apparently came from the weſt, where we underſtand that its effects were moſt violent. A chimney was thrown down at Swallowcliffe; and the caſement of a window was thrown out at the Lord's Arm's at Fovant. At Hinton alſo its effects were conſiderable, as the bells in moſt of the houſes were agitated. The afternoon was remarkably ſerene, ſcarcely any air was ſtirring, and the wind nearly eaſt.

OCTOBER 3.

Yeſterday, came on to be heard, at the Admiralty-court, Doctor's-commons, the farther pleadings reſpecting the St. Jago prize cauſe; when they were ordered to be poſtponed till the next term.

Briſtol, September 29. The truſtees of Briſtol bridge having yeſterday finiſhed erecting new gates in the room of thoſe before burnt, preparatory to the collecting the tolls, which was to begin to-night, the mob laſt night aſſembled, tore down and burnt the gates, &c. The mayor immediately ordered out the conſtables, and the Herefordſhire militia beat to arms at eleven o'clock laſt night. They proceeded to the bridge, with the mayor and conſtables, where about one this morning the riot act was read by one of the aldermen three times, after which the ſoldiers fired, when one perſon was killed, a few wounded, ten taken priſoners, and carried to the guard-houſe, but are ſince diſcharged by the magiſtrates.

Oct. 1. Laſt night, about eight o'clock in the evening, a large body of people aſſembled, to the amount of four or five thouſand, as they had done two or three nights before, on the bridge, committing the moſt violent acts of outrage, ſuch as breaking the toll-houſes open, and deſtroying all the things that were in them, by making a fire of them.—At laſt the drums belonging to the Herefordſhire militia beat to arms, which ſoon muſtered the ſoldiers; about three companies formed themſelves in a body oppoſite the council-houſe. The officers then waited on the magiſtrates, to know if they were to ſuffer the mob to continue longer without firing; upon which Mr. Noble, one of the aldermen of the city, with the officers of the regiment, headed the troops on, and marched down to the bridge, when they were ordered to fire by the magiſtrates, which they did in three different directions, which took a fair ſweep up High-ſtreet, down the back, and over the bridge. The dead bodies were carried about the ſtreets on hand-barrows for a conſiderable time this morning.—There are ſuppoſed to be killed and wounded about forty, twenty-four of whom were carried to the infirmary before eight o'clock.—Several letters have been picked up on the bridge, declaring vengeance againſt ſome of the aldermen and ſoldiers. I aſſure you the city is in a very alarming ſtate, and God knows when it will end.

October 4. I have the ſatisfaction to inform you, that peace is again reſtored. One party of horſe is arrived and two of foot; but I truſt there will be no further need of their aſſiſtance. The citizens have agreed to raiſe the money that is wanted for the bridge; and notice was yeſterday given, that the toll ſhould be taken off. The populace threaten ſome individuals who were active in the buſineſs, but I hope that will ſoon be forgot. The mob broke all the windows of the Guild-hall and council-houſe on Tueſday in the night; but that has been overlooked. Several people are dead of their wounds ſince Tueſday.

OCTOBER 5.

Mr. Mechain, who is at preſent in Spain, meaſuring an arc of the meridian, has lately informed M. De la Lande, that, on the 10th of January laſt, he diſcovered a new comet in the conſtellation of the dragon, which is viſible to the naked eye. At ſeven o'clock, P. M. the comet had 260. 4. right aſcenſion, and 65. 20. declination. The day after, it was 34 degrees advanced on his courſe toward caſſiopeia and the bull. This is our eighty-firſt comet, and the ninth diſcovered by Mr. Mechain.

OCTOBER 9.

On Monday, about eight o'clock in the evening, miſs Caroline Herſchel diſcovered a comet in the conſtellation of the ſerpent; but the heavens were clouded over ſo ſuddenly, that its place could not be taken. On Tueſday evening, at ſeven o'clock, Dr. Herſchel aſcertained its ſituation, and found that it preceded the firſt (ϑ) Ophiuchi, 6 minutes 34 ſeconds in time, and was 1 degree 25 minutes more north than that ſtar.

OCTOBER 16.

By a recent regulation, all viſitors to the ſtate-ſide of Newgate, are obliged to write their name, place of abode, and to whom they come, in a book, previous to their admiſſion.

By the marine ſociety, 1904 men, and 1567 boys, have been provided for in his majeſty's ſervice ſince the commencement of the war.

OCTOBER 20.

At a court of lieutenancy held at Guild-hall, before the lord-mayor and the reſt of his majeſty's commiſſioners of the ſaid court, the following gentlemen were appointed and ſworn in field-officers of the different regiments of London militia, viz. Richard Clark, eſq. to be colonel of the third regiment; William Lane, eſq. lieutenant-colonel, ditto; and William Ellis, eſq. major, ditto. Sir James Sanderſon, to be colonel of the ſecond regiment; William Champaire, eſq. lieutenant-colonel, ditto; and James Simpſon, eſq. major, ditto. Sir Watkin Lewes, to be colonel of the fourth regiment; Charles Lincoln, eſq. lieutenant-colonel, ditto; and Stephen Clarke, eſq. major, ditto. Nathaniel Newnham, eſq. to be colonel of the fifth regiment; Edward Dowling, eſq. lieutenant-colonel, ditto; and Edward Wigan, eſq. major, ditto. Thomas Sainſbury, eſq. to be colonel of the ſixth regiment; James Bayly, eſq. lieutenant-colonel, ditto; and Edward Stone, eſq. major, ditto.

OCTOBER 26.

On Thurſday, a pumpmaker in Hackney-road, was apprehended by the high conſtable of the Tower diviſion, immediately after the breaking-up of a meeting of one of the Reform Societies at his houſe, and examined before the juſtices Floud, Colquhoun, Davies, and Staples, upon a charge of uttering many ſeditious and in-

ſtammatory ſpeeches, particularly, 'That there would never be any peace or good times, until all Kings were aboliſhed from the face of the earth, and that it was his wiſh that there were no Kings at all, and that he wiſhed the French would land 100,000 men in England to fight againſt the government party.' The words being fully proved, the magiſtrates committed him to Newgate for trial, and ordered that twenty-four hours notice of bail ſhould be given to Meſſ. Chamberlayne and White, ſolicitors for the crown.

OCTOBER 28.

Laſt week, ſome very ſerious riots took place at Birmingham, on account of the collecting of the rate, for the money to be raiſed for the compenſation to the ſufferers by the riots in 1791. The military were obliged to be called in; and, the riot act was read; ſeveral perſons were apprehended, and committed to priſon; a reſcue being attempted, the mob were fired at from the windows, and ſeveral were wounded; but on the 24th every thing was quiet, and the conſtables were again collecting the rate. None of the wounded were dead: four were in the hoſpital, two of them in a very dangerous ſtate. All the priſoners in cuſtody, in conſequence of the riot, had been diſcharged, except two or three, who were ordered to find bail for their good behaviour.

Admiralty-office, October 25, 1793.

Copy of a Letter from Captain James Saumarez, of his Majeſty's Ship Creſcent, to Mr. Stephens, dated off Cherbourg, the 20th of October 1793.

I have the honour to acquaint you, for the information of my lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that this morning, being off Cape Barfleur in his majeſty's ſhip Creſcent under my command, I fell in with a French frigate, which, after a cloſe action of two hours and ten minutes, ſtruck to his majeſty's colours; ſhe proved to be La-Re-Union, mounting thirty-ſix guns, and manned with 320 men.

I am ſingularly happy in being able to inform their lordſhips, that ſhe has been obtained without the loſs of a ſingle man, or even any wounded; although her's has been very conſiderable indeed, having, (as the priſoners inform me) 120 killed and wounded.

I muſt beg leave to render the moſt ample juſtice to the officers and ſhip's company of the Creſcent, for their cool and ſteady behaviour during the action; and I take this opportunity to recommend to their lordſhips notice the three lieutenants, Meſſ. Parker, Otter and Rye; their conduct has afforded me the utmoſt ſatisfaction.

La Re-Union was accompanied by a cutter, which did not attempt to come into action, but made ſail for Cherbourg. —*Lond. Gaz.*

WEST INDIES.

St. Chriſtopher's, Aug. 19. On Monday laſt, from the appearance of the atmoſphere, we had every indication of an approaching ſtorm, which commenced early in the evening, and blew with great violence the greateſt part of the night, during which much damage was done both by ſea and land. From what we have been able to learn, almoſt all the eſtates in this iſland have ſuffered ſome injury; thoſe in the mountains particularly, have ſuffered very conſiderably; ſeveral windmills and other buildings have been much injured; all their two winter canes, and other earlier pieces, are almoſt totally deſtroyed, as much ſo, we are informed, as they were in the great hurricane of 1772.—Thirty eight of thoſe well-known and much-admired Barbadoes cabbage trees on the Gayon eſtate of Daniel Matthew, eſq, which weathered that gale, are now totally deſtroyed. The ſteeple and belfry of the church at Middle Iſland, are blown down.

In the town, the damage was not ſo great as we had reaſon to expect from the violence of the ſtorm; ſeveral fences were blown down, and trees deſtroyed.

In this road in the evening, near thirty ſail of ſhips were at anchor; but in the morning not one to be ſeen, except thoſe that were ſtranded at different places along the ſhore.

The following account is all we could obtain of the veſſels:

Stranded—Brig South Carolina, from Bourdeaux, brought in that day by the privateer ſloop Sally, with a valuable cargo of dry-goods, &c. Bark Commerce, ſloops William, Guſtavus Adolphus, prizes.—Schooner Mary, of Philadelphia, and ſloop Hannah, another American.—Sloops Little Jack, Nancy, Indian Caſtle, and Polly.—Schooners Nancy, Peggy, and Polly, all of this iſland. The ſloop Nancy, and ſchooner William and Charles, of Nevis, and the ſchooner Hoppett, of St. Bartholomew's.—The

ſchooner Lætitia, of Antigua, was daſhed to pieces upon the rocks at Deep Bay; captain Toll, and all the crew, unfortunately drowned.

The following veſſels are miſſing:

Ship Mary, captain Youd, of Dominica; ſloop Endeavour, captain Baſden; ſloop Polly, captain Rogers; ſloop Sally, captain M'Dougall; ſchooners Tyſon and Bee; ſhip Aurora, captain Burnes; and ſhip Liberty, captain Miller, Americans.

The ſloop Flying Delight, of this iſland, is loſt at St. Euſtatius, where we are informed ſome other veſſels are ſtranded.

The following veſſels put out in the gale and returned ſince: ſloop Sally, Sukey and Polly, Endeavour, and Induſtry; ſchooners Fanny and Betſey; and the Swediſh ſloop John.

The ſhip African Queen, capt. Downie, which was loaded at Nevis, put out in the gale, and foundered; ſome of the crew, we hear, have been taken up at ſea.

MARRIAGES.

William Chute, eſq. M. P. for Hants, to miſs Smith, ſecond daughter of Joſhua Smith, eſq. M. P. for Devizes.

Hon. Robert Moleſworth, ſon of viſcount Moleſworth, to the hon. miſs Jones, daughter of viſcount Ranelagh.

Wylde Brown, eſq. of Coſley, in Shropſhire, to miſs Whitmore, daughter of Thomas Whitmore, eſq. M. P.

William Hicks, eſq. eldeſt ſon of ſir Howe Hicks, bart. to miſs Chute, daughter of the late Thomas Lobb Chute, eſq. of the Vine, Hants.

Rev. John Ackland, vicar of Broad Cliff, near Exeter, to the hon. Catharine Devereux, ſiſter of viſcount Hereford.

DEATHS.

Henry earl of Digby.

Hon. John St. John, uncle to viſcount Bolingbroke.

Hon. Andrew Erſkine, ſon of Alexander fifth earl of Kellie.

Wills Hill, marquis of Downſhire.

Philip Carteret Webb, eſq. of Milford-houſe, in Surry.

Giles Crawford, eſq. M. P.

Sir John Wilſon, knt. one of the juſtices of the common-pleas.

John Hunter, eſq. ſurgeon-general to the army, and inſpector general of the military hoſpitals.

Ducheſs dowager of Ancaſter.

PREFERMENT.

Rev. Dr. Samuel Horſeley, biſhop of St. David's—Biſhop of Rocheſter and dean of Weſtminſter.

PROMOTIONS.

Sir Gilbert Elliot, bart.—a privy-counſellor.

Charles Whitworth, eſq. envoy extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the court of Peterſburg—K. B.

George Harward, eſq.—Conſul at Oſtend.

Hon. colonel Henry Edward Fox—Quarter-maſter-general of the army under the duke of York.

Lieutenant-general ſir Charles Grey, K. B.—General of the army in America only.

Major-general Robert Preſcott—Lieut. general in America only.

Colonel Thomas Dundas—Brigadier in America only.

Robert Liſton, eſq.—Ambaſſador to the Ottoman Porte.

Colonel prince Edward—Major-general.

Generals Henry Seymour Conway, his royal highneſs William duke of Glouceſter, K. G. ſir George Howard, K. B.—Field-marſhals.

Lieutenant-generals Robert Melvill, Mariſcoe Frederick, Robert Dalrymple, Horn Elphinſtone, James Johnſton, James Johnſton, Charles marquis of Drogheda, K. St. P. ſir William Auguſtus Pitt, K. B. lord Adam Gordon, hon. Alexander Maitland, Archibald earl of Eglintoune, Hunt Walſh, Guy lord Dorcheſter, K. B. ſir Charles Thompſon, bart. and K. B. Robert Clerk, Robert Cuninghame, hon. ſir William Howe, K. B. lord George Henry Lennox, Henry Fletcher, John Hale, ſir Robert Boyd, K. B. ſir Henry Clinton, K. B. Charles lord Southampton, Bernard Hale, Francis Craig, Hugh duke of Northumberland, K. G. William Tayler, Charles marquis Cornwallis, K. G.—Generals.

Major-generals ſir Thomas Shirley, bart. Joſeph Bromé, Patrick Tonyn, Gabriel Chriſtie, John Reid, Charles Roſs, ſir William Green, bart. George Scott, Charles O'Hara, Robert Sandford, Loftus Anthony Tottenham, William Rowley, Harry Trelawney, Peter Bathurſt, hon. William Gordon, John Maunſell, Stuart Douglas, Robert Preſcott, hon. William Harcourt, Henry earl of Carhampton, William Dalrymple, William Picton, ſir Hector Munro, K. B. hon. Edward Stopford,

ford, hon. William Hervey, Weſt Hyde, John Fletcher Campbell, Francis Laſcelles, James Murray, Samuel Townſend, ſir William Medows, K. B. Thomas Oſbert Mordaunt—Lieutenant-generals.

Colonels John Lind, William Shirreff, William Grinfield, Samuel Hulſe, Albemarle Bertie, Charles Vallancey, Thomas Pigot, hon. John Thomas De Burgh, ſir James Stewart, bart. Thomas Carleton, James Marſh, Cavendiſh Litter, Charles Leigh, James Oglivie, William Roberts, Robert Kingſton, ſir Robert Laurie, bart. John Tupper, William Martin, John Archer, William Edmeſton, David Home, Hugh Debbieg, Montgomery Agnew, Thomas Jones, James Stewart, Alexander earl of Balcarras, hon. Charles Stuart, Cornelius Cuyler, Thomas Dundas, Charles earl of Harrington, hon. Richard Fitz Patrick, Neſbitt Balfour, Edmund Stevens, Thomas Trigge, Francis earl of Moira, Peter Craig, Benjamin Stebelin—Major-generals.

Major-general Gerard Lake—Lieutenant-governor of Berwick.

Colonel James Henry Craig—Lieutenant-governor of Guernſey.

Surgeon John Gunning—Surgeon-general of the army.

Surgeon Thomas Keate—Inſpector of the regimental hoſpitals.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

SEPTEMBER 28.

ISaac Bayly, of Bath, horſe-dealer.

William Mole, of St. Andrew, in Worceſter, glove-manufacturer.

Thomas Matteſon, of Kingſton-upon-Hull, woollen-draper.

William Foſter, of Charlton, in Kent, baker.

Charles Miniſe, of Exeter, tallow-chandler.

OCTOBER 2.

Daniel Roberts, and John Roberts, of Chatham-place, merchants.

David Benjamin, of Great Alie-ſtreet, Goodman's-fields, druggiſt.

Samuel Luff, of Birmingham, grocer.

Timothy Pearce, of Fobbing, Eſſex, dealer.

James Barker, and William Gallimore, of Walton, Staffordſhire, wine-merchants.

OCTOBER 5.

John Cox, of Manchester, cotton-manufacturer.

William Jones, of Swanſea, in Glamorganſhire, merchant.

William Pearſon, of Cayſtor, in Lincolnſhire, wine-merchant.

Ralph Harriſon, of Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, iron-founder.

William Garnett, of Kingſton-upon-Hull, horſe-dealer.

Matthew Pringle, of Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, corn-merchant.

James Whitham, of Addingham, in Yorkſhire, jobber.

John Whitham, of Addingham, in Yorkſhire, and Thomas Whitham the elder, of Haworth, in Yorkſhire, jobbers.

Thomas Lloyd, and John Evans, of St. Ann, Soho, horſe-dealers.

Thomas Burberry, of Sun-ſtreet, London, weaver.

William Richards the younger, of Walworth, in Surry, ſhip-broker.

Thomas Powell, of St. Martin's in the fields, Weſtminſter, ironmonger.

OCTOBER 8.

Benjamin Beet, of White-friars, coal-merchant.

William Crawley, of Tottenham-court-road, tinplate-worker.

William Tinſon, of Wakefield, in Yorkſhire, jeweller.

OCTOBER 12.

Robert Barclay, and Henry Summers, of Friday-ſtreet, warehouſemen.

Thomas Hull, of Little Moorfields, ſtable-keeper.

William Borrett, of Alderſgate-ſtreet, grocer.

Joſhua Walker, of the Minories, mercer.

Benjamin Beet, and George Popplewell Pothill, of White-friars, coal-merchants.

Francis Froom, of Oxford-ſtreet, coach-maker.

John Goater, of Wincheſter, ſilverſmith.

Summertan Bennett, of Beckley, in Suſſex, linen-draper.

Allen Burton, of Great Sloane-ſtreet, Brompton, bricklayer.

Thomas Kendrick, of Birmingham, carpenter.

OCTOBER 15.

James Staley Tailor, of Exeter, fillet-painter.

William Grigg the younger, of Briſtol, haberdaſher.

Richard Jackſon, of Wakefield, in Yorkſhire, hardwareman.

Richard Rayner, of Kingſton-upon-Hull, dealer.

OCTOBER 19.

Thomas Soden, of Artillery-place, St. Luke, Old-ſtreet, apothecary.

John Williams, of Queen's Elms, Chelſea, builder.

Robert

Robert Scott, of Scarborough, Yorkshire, silversmith.

Thomas Howell, of Billingsgate, merchant.

Henry Carpenter, of Maid-lane, Southwark, coal-merchant.

Jacob Thrall, of Bristol, merchant.

George Lee, of Bath, coachmaker.

George Burkinshaw, of Barnsley, in Yorkshire, ironmonger.

Joseph Boyce, and John Boyce, of Bordesley, Birmingham, brass-founders.

OCTOBER 22.

Margaret Hunter, Henry Hunter, otherwise Henry Keowen Hunter, and Robert Hunter, of Bristol, merchants.

William Stevenson, of Threadneedle-street, hatter.

OCTOBER 26.

James Clarke, of Oxford, woollen-draper.

John Strachan, of the Strand, bookseller.

Thomas Gardner, of Gloucester, baker.

Thomas Oliver, of Tiverton, in Devonshire, linen-draper.

Thomas Jones, of Liverpool, upholsterer.

Thomas Jesson, of Fleckney, in Leicestershire, woolcomber.

Walter Hall, and Frederick Hall, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, merchants.

Thomas Williams, of Bristol, merchant.

John Yeates, of Hereford, mercer.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ART of Seamanship, in Theory and Practice, 8vo. 5s.

Facts, tending to show the Connection of the Stomach with Life, Disease, and Recovery, 1s. 6d.

Stoddard on the Day of Judgment 3s. boards.

D'Israeli's Dissertation on Anecdotes, 2s.

Liverpool Odes for 1793, 1s. 6d.

Wake's Liberal Version of the Psalms, with Notes and Illustrations, 2 vol. small 8vo. 8s.

Saunders' Treatise on the Liver, 8vo. 5s.

Baillie's Morbid Anatomy of some Parts of the Human Body, 8vo. 7s.

Arnold's Case of Hydrophia, successfully treated, 8vo. 5s.

Adams' Elements of Useful Knowledge, 12mo. 3s. 6d.

Watson's Universal Gazetteer, 8vo. 7s.

Romance of the Cavern, 2 vol. 6s.

French Cookery, 8vo. 5s.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

October 19, 1793.

By the Standard Winchester Quarter of Eight Bushels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middlesex	45	0	37	0	34	5	24	7
Surry	46	4	33	4	35	0	26	8
Hertford	44	6	36	3	34	3	23	8
Bedford	45	11	33	8	33	7	24	5
Huntingdon	43	1	——		33	8	20	10
Northampton	46	4	32	6	33	11	22	9
Rutland	48	6	——		37	0	27	6
Leicester	53	2	——		38	6	24	6
Nottingham	50	3	37	2	39	0	24	4
Derby	55	1	——		40	8	25	11
Stafford	52	7	——		39	2	35	2
Salop	50	10	40	8	38	4	26	9
Hereford	49	2	41	8	34	0	23	2
Worcester	49	9	30	2	39	5	28	11
Warwick	49	10	——		37	8	27	4
Wilts	42	6	——		32	8	26	2
Berks	43	2	36	2	32	0	25	4
Oxford	44	4	——		30	2	24	10
Bucks	44	8	——		33	7	24	0
Brecon	49	8	38	4	31	2	17	8
Montgomery	47	6	37	8	34	10	19	4
Radnor	47	11	——		33	8	22	9

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Essex	42	10	——		33	0	24	8
Kent	43	3	32	6	33	6	22	9
Suffex	41	8	——		31	4	24	6
Suffolk	43	7	30	3	32	11	22	2
Cambridge	40	6	26	2	31	7	18	1
Norfolk	42	2	28	9	31	1	21	1
Lincoln	43	10	34	5	34	3	18	9
York	42	9	34	6	33	1	20	2
Durham	42	2	33	9	32	7	18	8
Northumberland	41	4	28	10	25	5	17	3
Cumberland	49	1	41	0	30	4	19	0
Westmorland	51	8	41	0	28	10	22	1
Lancaster	49	1	——		36	7	22	7
Chester	49	7	——		37	5	20	4
Flint	47	1	——		34	8	18	3
Denbigh	52	5	——		34	4	20	2
Anglesea	44	0	——		25	0	12	6
Carnarvon	44	4	38	0	28	0	14	10
Merioneth	55	5	39	4	35	2	14	7
Cardigan	47	0	33	4	25	4	——	
Pembroke	43	4	——		23	11	12	0
Carmarthen	49	1	——		29	0	12	4
Glamorgan	47	7	——		26	6	16	0
Gloucester	48	9	——		33	7	24	0
Somerset	49	9	——		28	8	19	4
Monmouth	51	6	——		32	10	17	10
Devon	46	7	——		24	8	16	2
Cornwall	49	0	——		25	2	14	8
Dorset	43	2	——		31	0	18	8
Hants	41	2	——		30	10	24	5

Peck Loaf, 2s. 6d.

PRICES

PRICES of STOCKS, from SEPTEMBER 28, to OCTOBER 28, 1793, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

1793	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans.	Short Ans.	India Stock.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English Lot.	English Tic.
28	shut.	shut.	74¾a75	shut.		shut.	shut.	205	10s.pr.		shut.		9½dif.	14 7	6
30	172 ¼		74⅞a¾		106 ¼			205	11				9 ¼	14 8	0
1	172 ⅜		74¾a75⅛		106 ¼			205 ¼	12				9 ¼	14 9	0
2	172 ⅜		75⅛a¼		106 ⅜			205 ½	13				9 ¼	14 9	6
3	172 ⅜		75⅛·74¾		106 ⅜				14				9 ¼	14 8	6
4	172 ⅜		74⅞a75⅛		106 ⅜			205 ¼	20				9 ¼	14 8	0
5	172 ⅜		75⅛a75				40 ⅛	205 ¼	22				9 ¼	14 8	6
7	172 ⅜		75		106 ⅜			206	24				9 ¼	14 8	0
8	172 ⅜	75 ⅜	75⅛a¼		106 ⅜			206 ¼	25				9 ¼	14 8	6
9	172 ⅜	75 ¼	75⅛·75		106 ⅜			207	25				9 ¼	14 8	6
10	172 ⅜		75a⅛		106 ⅜			206 ¼	23	80 ¼			9 ¼	14 8	6
11	171 ⅜		75⅛a74⅞		106 ⅜				19				9 ¼	14 8	0
12	171 ⅜		74⅞a⅛						20				9 ¼	14 7	6
14	171 ⅜		75·74⅛		106 ⅜				19				9 ¼	14 8	0
15	171 ⅜		74⅞a75⅛		106 ⅜			207 ¼					9 ¼	14 8	0
16	171 ⅜		75a⅛		106 ⅜			207 ¼	20	80			9 ¼	14 10	6
17	171 ⅜		75⅛a⅛		106 ⅜			208 ¼	19				9 ¼	14 10	6
18	171 ⅜		75⅛a⅛					208	19				9 ¼	14 10	6
19	171 ⅜		75⅛a¼		106 ⅜			207 ½	19			74 ⅞	9 ¼	14 10	6
21	171 ⅜		75a74¼		106 ⅜			207 ¼	18				9 ¼	14 10	0
22	171		74⅞a⅛		106 ⅜				18				9 ¼	14 10	6
23	167 ½	74	74⅛a⅜	90 ½	106 ⅜		9 ½		17				9 ¼	14 9	6
24	166 ⅞	73 ⅞	74½a⅜	90 ⅛	106 ⅜		9 ½	206 ¼	17				9 ¼	14 10	0
25															
26															
28															

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a sixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

N. B. The 3 per Cent. India Annuities shut the 3 1st of August last, and are now consolidated with the 3 per Cent. Reduced Annuities at the Bank.

UNIV. OF MICH.

Ermenonville, the Seat of M. de Gerardin, the Friend of Rousseau.

Engraved by Spanoro fec.

An Account of ERMENONVILLE, *the Gardens of M.* GERARDIN, *the Friend of* ROUSSEAU: *With a Perſpective View of the* CHATEAU.

THE chateau, or ſeat, of M. de Gerardin (late marquis of Gerardin and viſcount of Ermenonville) is ſituated at the diſtance of ten leagues from Paris, and four from Chantilly. In itſelf it has no character or regular appearance: its aſpect is neither elegant nor handſome, and it ſeems a little tending to the ruinous. It is intereſting to the lover of rural nature from the beautiful paradiſe around it, which its proprietor has formed upon the beſt Engliſh models: it is more intereſting to the ſentimental traveller, as the favourite ſpot to which Rouſſeau retired from the world; where he terminated in peace an eccentric life; where his remains were depoſited in his beloved ſylvan ſcenes; and where a monument to his memory ſtill ſpeaks the love and veneration of his noble friend.

On each ſide of the lawn, in front of the chateau, is a lodge. One of theſe was inhabited by Rouſſeau. He lived in the attic ſtory only: but this was intended merely as a temporary reſidence. In this room he died. 'In an account of the death of Rouſſeau,' ſays the author of a Tour through Part of France, 'he is ſaid, in a converſation with his wife, to have deſired her to throw open the window of his room, a few minutes before he expired, and there to have admired the verdure of the fields and the beauties of nature *. This account muſt have been erroneous; as that part of the houſe is ſo totally ſurrounded by trees, cloſe up to the very window, that not the leaſt veſtige of the charms of nature can be diſcerned, except it be in the trunks of pines and fir trees.'

On entering the gardens from this place is a gate, over which is an inſcription in French, of which the following is a tranſlation:

The cultur'd garden, richly grac'd
With all the labour'd charms of taſte,
Muſt owe its faſhion and its rules
To French, Chineſe, or Engliſh ſchools:
But the deep grove, the limpid tide,
The verdant mead, and landſcape wide,
And Nature's ſteps, are ſtill the ſame,
Of ev'ry age and ev'ry name.
'Tis thus, amid this rude retreat,
That diſtant nations find a ſeat;
That ev'ry tongue, uncheck'd, attends,
And all that enter, meet as friends.

One of the moſt intereſting parts of theſe gardens is the celebrated Iſle of Poplars, ſituated toward the extremity of an extenſive and beautiful lake, at a ſmall diſtance from the oppoſite bank; whence the tomb of Rouſſeau may be plainly diſcovered. It ſtands in the midſt of a grove of poplars †. On the tomb, a female is repreſented in the front, ſitting beneath a palm-tree, ſuckling her infant; with the volume of Emilius in her hand. On an altar, before the ſtatue of Nature, is a group of females ſacrificing. A child appears to be ſetting fire to a heap of ſwaddling clothes and bandages; while others are dancing round with the ſtaff and cap of liberty. The figures of Eloquence and Love are repreſented on the ſides; and the inſcription over it, choſen by Rouſſeau, is

VITAM IMPENDERE VERO.

On the oppoſite ſide is repreſented Truth, by a naked female figure, holding a torch in her hand; and Nature, by a mother ſuckling her infants. Two turtle doves are expiring

* See this converſation at length, with remarks upon it, in our Magazine for June 1781.

† See a beautiful view of the Iſle of Poplars and the Monument of Rouſſeau, in our Magazine for June 1781. This fine lake was deſtroyed by an impetuous ſtorm in December 1787; but it was the intention of the marquis to reſtore it ſoon to its former ſtate, and to make further improvements in this intereſting ſpot.

in flames, at the foot of an urn; and at each extremity are funeral vaſes. The ſculpture is done by Le Sueur: the deſign is by M. Robert. Over the front, on the north ſide, is this inſcription:

Ici repoſe
L'Homme de la Nature & de la Verité.

From this place the viſitor is conducted round by the ſide of the lake, and croſſes a ruſtic bridge over a ſmall rivulet, to a ſpot on which is an obeliſk, dedicated to Theocritus, Virgil, Thomſon, and Geſner, with ſuitable inſcriptions to each in Greek, Latin, Engliſh, and German.

On a ſtone, placed obliquely on the ground, is the following curious inſcription, intended by M. Gerardin (by whom alone the different inſcriptions were written) as a compliment to Shenſtone; but they remain a proof how abſurd it is in the moſt accompliſhed men to attempt poetical compoſition in the language of another country:

This plain ſtone
To William Shenſtone.
In his Verſes he diſplay'd
His Mind natural:
At Leaſowes he laid
Arcadian Greens rural.
Venus freſh riſing from the foamy Tide,
She ev'ry Boſom warms,
While half withdrawn ſhe ſeems to hide,
And half reveals her Charms.
Learn hence, ye boaſtful Sons of Taſte,
Who plan the rural Shade,
Learn hence, to ſhun the vicious Waſte
Of Pomp at large diſplay'd.

The author of the Tour before-mentioned obſerves, that he could not avoid commenting on this curious production of M. Gerardin's; when the gardener, who is a Scotchman, and lived laſt at Stowe, ſaid, that on his coming here, he had adviſed him to remove this and ſome other Engliſh inſcriptions; but in vain, as his vanity would not ſuffer him to be convinced of the inelegance and abſurdity of the compoſition. He anſwered, that they were juſt as he wiſhed them to be, rude and unpoliſhed.

A wild and romantic path leads hence to the Hermitage. Over the door of it is a French inſcription, which may be thus tranſlated:

Still as I look the charms of Nature o'er,
I view its God, and, viewing him, adore.

Not far from the Hermitage is the Temple of modern Philoſophy. The pillars are rude and unfiniſhed, ſix excepted, which are complete; and all around are ſtrewed upon the earth heaps of ſhapeleſs ſtones, and parts of pillars ready to complete the colonnade, when Nature ſhall have given birth to ſufficient genius. The temple is dedicated to Montaigne, with this inſcription:

Hoc Templum inchoatum Philoſophiæ nondum perfectæ, Michaeli Montaigne, qui Omnia dixit, ſacrum eſto.

On the front of the door is written:

Rerum cognoſcere Cauſas.
VIRGIL.

On a broken and unfiniſhed pillar:

Quis hoc perficiet?

And on the baſe of it:

Falſum ſtare non poteſt.

Of the ſix complete pillars, five of them are inſcribed to the memory of ſome great man, in the following order:

NEWTON.
Lucem.

DESCARTES.
Nil in Rebus inane.

W. PENN.
Humanitatem.

MONTESQUIEU.
Juſtitiam.

J. J. ROUSSEAU.
Naturam.

'Ermenonville,' ſays the author before quoted, 'has ſucceeded better under the hand of M. de Gerardin, in cloſely imitating the ſteps of Nature, than any ſpot I have ever ſeen. Nothing ſeems laboured, nothing artificial. The ground is irregular, and the

the ornaments rude; though the latter approach, in many inſtances, to too great an exceſs. I can ſee no reaſon, if ornaments are to be made uſe of in ſuch places as theſe (which, in itſelf, is a deviation from nature) why they ſhould not be handſome, and bear ſome marks of beauty: they ought, at leaſt, not to diſgrace what they are deſigned to celebrate. To ſee a miſerable obeliſk, built of brick, and reſembling a chimney more than a monument, conſecrated to the *firſt poets* (at leaſt in the opinion of the director) is carrying the refinement of wildneſs to too high a pitch.'—It may be obſerved here, that M. Gerardin had ſelected the four poets for the obeliſk, not as the *firſt poets*, but as the *firſt poets of rural nature*. Still, however, our author's obſervation is juſt. The wildneſs of Nature ſhould not be too cloſely imitated. Our celebrated Kent, the inventor of the modern art of gardening, was laughed out of a ridiculous conceit, that of planting dead trees in Kenſington Gardens, the more truly to imitate nature.

From the Temple of Philoſophy, a lovely walk leads through the boſom of a young wood, a gentle ſtream meandering by its ſide, to a charming ſequeſtered ſpot. Here an altar is erected, ſacred

A la Reverie,

and containing, on one ſide, two Italian lines, of which the following are a tranſlation:

Be ſacred ever this ſequeſter'd ſhade,
For bards, philoſophers, and lovers made.

On a rock that overhangs the ſtream are four lines, ſo truly elegant and pleaſing, that we ſhall give both the original and the tranſlation:

Coule, gentil ruiſſeau; ſous cet epais feuillage;
Ton bruit charme les ſens, il attendrit le cœur;
Coule, gentil ruiſſeau; car ton cours eſt l'image
De celui d'un beau jour paſſé dans le bonheur.

Flow, gentle ſtream; beneath the cooling ſhade
Thy waters charm the ſenſes as they ſtray;
Flow, gentle ſtream; for in thy courſe portray'd
Is the calm image of a peaceful day.

Our limits will not permit us to rove through each enchanting ſcene in theſe delightful gardens. We ſhall only mention ſome of the moſt ſtriking. On the ſide of a hill, is a cottage, plain and unornamented, called the Cottage of Rouſſeau. Over the door is inſcribed:

Jean Jacques eſt immortel.

Diſperſed around are various extracts from his writings, upon ſtones that lie near the cottage.

On one ſide of the Lake beforementioned is another iſland, called L'Iſle de Gabrielle, and ornamented with an antique tower, called the Tower of Gabrielle. This is intended to commemorate the circumſtance, that the Chateau of Ermenonville formerly belonged to Henry IV, and was the reſidence of his favourite miſtreſs, Gabrielle d' Eſtrées, ducheſs of Beaufort.

The rural cottage, built purpoſely for the reſidence of Rouſſeau, is not far from the Iſle of Gabrielle. It is covered over with roſes and honeyſuckles, in a ſpot where the verdure is very delightful, and the foliage of the trees and ſhrubs rich and luxuriant. It is a retreat that would have been worthy of him, had he lived to enjoy it, and could his reſtleſs and irritable mind have been permanently happy.

The eldeſt ſon of M. Gerardin publiſhed, in 1789, 'Promenade, ou Itineraire des Jardins d'Ermenonville, &c. The Walk, or Itinerary of the Gardens of Ermenonville, with twenty-five of the principal Views in them, deſigned and engraved by Merigot, jun.'—We ſhall conclude this account by obſerving, that M. Gerardin, publiſhed, in 1777, an excellent treatiſe, entitled, 'De la Compoſition

poſition des Payſages, ou des Moyens d'embellir la Nature autour des Habitations, en joignant l'agreeable à l'utile.—On the Compoſition of Landſcapes, or of the Methods of adorning Nature in the Vicinity of Country Seats, by uniting the agreeable to the uſeful.' His motto is from Milton, and, in a ſingle line, characterizes his own enchanting abode—

A happy rural ſeat of various view.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* PRUNING *of* ORCHARDS: *Communicated by* Thomas Skip Dyot Bucknall, *Eſq. for which he received a Silver Medal from the* Society *for the* Encouragement *of* Arts, *&c.*

[From the Eleventh Volume of the Tranſactions of the Society.]

THE pruning of orchards appears to me a ſubject which has been greatly neglected; but is capable of being methodiſed into a ſyſtem to ſuit the meaneſt capacity, and does not require the ſkill of a gardener; being reducible to a few general heads, concentrating in the principle of making every tree in an orchard healthy, round, large, and beautiful.

How far the hints may be worthy of the patronage of the ſociety, I cannot ſay; but ſhould feel myſelf highly gratified, if they could gain a place in their uſeful publications; for by that means they will become known in the country, and, if put in practice, would in great meaſure remove from the London markets the quantities of ſpeckled and ſtunted fruits conſtantly ſeen there; which in a great degree ariſes from the trees being overloaded with wood, that, obſtructing the rays of the ſun, cauſes an almoſt perpetual vapour, the cold of which, in the ſpring, ſtunting the fruit in the firſt growth, the evil muſt remain, let the weather ſet in ever ſo fine afterward.

Every coſtermonger knows it is the fine fruit which ſells the orchard; for, of the interior ſorts, many buſhels do not produce above a penny to the grower, after the expences of gathering and bringing to market are borne. The following experiment was made in the ſpring and autumn of 1790, on ſix acres of land fully planted with apples and cherries, on an old hop-ground, at Sittingbourne, in the county of Kent; and although the leaſe had eighteen years to run, I put myſelf to near 10l. expence, merely to ſhew the tenant what could be done, and which has fully anſwered the intended purpoſe.

THE bark of trees, properly conſidered, conſiſts of three diviſions; the outer, rough; the middle, ſoft and ſpungy; the inner, a whitiſh rind, being that which joins the bark to the wood; and this laſt is ſuppoſed to contain the liquid ſap. It is conſtantly obſerved, that when the ſtem of the tree grows too faſt for the bark, it cauſes blotches and lacerations; which evil is properly avoided by ſcoring the bark with a ſharp knife: but care ſhould be taken not to cut through the whitiſh rind before mentioned; for that heals very difficultly, generally ulcerates, and by being cut through, gives the inſects * an opportunity of getting between the wood and the bark, where they are very deſtructive.

Any ſurgeon knows that a wound extending to the fine membrane, covering the bones of the human body, requires much more ſkill to cure than a fleſh wound; and the caſe is ſimilar.

Pruning is an important article with regard to the health of trees,

* Inſects, ſuch as ants, earwigs, and many ſpecies of millepedes, with numerous microſcopic creatures, of which I know no name; but each of which obſtruct the healing of the wounds, by their conſtant eating and fretting the tender bark.

and their bearing; and if judiciouſly done, they will come into bearing ſooner, and continue in vigour for nearly double their common age: but the ſyſtems of pruning are ſo wordy, that the common farmer cannot underſtand them, and the gardener thinks the orchard beneath his care, for which reaſon it is left to nature and the winds; for the farmer, afraid of doing wrong, never troubles himſelf about it, unleſs, ſeeing a branch half broken, he takes his bill and knocks it off, perhaps four or five inches from the trunk, leaving an unſightly ſtump. Do not imagine this is intended as any reproach; for there are no ſet of men who ſpend their time more judiciouſly in their vocation, but they cannot run into ſpeculations; if they did, little rent would be paid. I give no attention to fruit branches and wood branches, as being unneceſſary in the preſent inſtance; and beg once for all, that no branch ſhall ever be ſhortened, unleſs for the figure of the tree, and then conſtantly taken off cloſe at the ſeparation, by which means the wound ſoon heals. The more the range of the branches ſhoot circularly, a little inclining upward, the more equally will the ſap be diſtributed, and the better will the tree bear; for, from that circumſtance, the ſap is more evenly impelled to every part. Do not let the ranges of branches be too near each other; for remember, all the fruit and the leaves ſhould have their full ſhare of the ſun; and where it ſuits, let the middle of the tree be free from wood, ſo that no branch ſhall ever croſs another, but all the extreme ends point outward.

The beſt compliment your neighbour can make is, that your trees are handſome, but too thin of wood: be it ſo; and you may ſay, true, farmer; but I have the beſt price at market, and that will always be the ſure teſt of perfection.

My tenant, Mr. Boulding, planted the orchard in 1772: being on a rich ſoil, it throve ſurpriſingly. That vigorous growth occaſioned the after decay; for the wind having great power over them, ſplit them down; the ladders, in gathering, broke them; the wood being ſoft, many cauſes concurred to injure them; and the injudicious manner in which the lacerations were taken off, added to the evil; for there generally follows gum from a wound, which being ſweet in fruit-bearing trees, the wound becomes filled with vermin, which obſtructs the healing, by their conſtantly eating and fretting the young bark.

Being informed of the ſituation the orchard was in, I went down in the ſpring of 1790, and found the branches ſo intermixed and entangled together, that in many places they had cut each other nearly half through, cauſing wounds and blotches; which, on the return of the ſap in the ſpring, always affects the leaves, by inclining them to curl, and is a proof that the ſap is vitiated.

Having examined the circumſtances, I told the tenant I would come down in the autumn, when proper perſons muſt be found to execute the buſineſs, and we would reinſtate the orchard, and bring it to its former ſplendour; for it ſhould be obſerved, the orchard uſed to be much admired. Accordingly, I went the firſt Tueſday in November, and for two hours walked over the ground with the men, inſtructing them what I would have done, that we might begin the next morning, work with ſpirit, and loſe no time. We had ſaws, bills, and knives prepared on purpoſe; and, though I am a good hand myſelf, ſoon perceived neither of us could cut true enough with a bill to take off the branch, without leaving a ſtump or improper wound; for it is eſſentially neceſſary that every branch ſhould be cut perfectly cloſe and ſmooth; for which reaſon we took the ſaws, and afterward ſmoothed the place with a knife. My ſervant's buſineſs was, with a painter's bruſh to ſmear over the wounds with a medicated tar hereafter deſcribed.

It

It is impoſſible the bark can grow over a ſtump, becauſe there is no power to draw the ſap that way; for which reaſon always cut a little within the wood. I was conſtantly directing to cut quick, cloſe, and ſmooth: we kept together, firſt walked round the tree; then I pointed out every branch that came near to the ground or had received any material injury, or where the leaves were much curled; for where the leaves curl, the fruit is always ſpecky; and every branch, which had the leaſt tendency to croſs the tree or run inward, was taken off. Then we gave a little attention to the beauty of the head, leaving all the branches as nearly equidiſtant as poſſible: next we examined if there were any remaining blotches, opening or ſcoring them with the knife; and where the bark was ragged from any laceration, paring it gently down till we came to the live wood. Each of theſe was touched over with the medicated tar.

Having gone thus far, we ſhould have rubbed off the moſs and ſcored the trees: but I had not time for that part of the buſineſs; I only wiſh I had ſecured a perſon on purpoſe. In the cutting we followed the ſurgeon's rule; go to the quick, but do not wantonly make any wound larger than neceſſary.

We ſometimes had our doubts whether a particular branch ſhould be taken off. The idea I brought it under was this: conſider whether it will be in the way three years hence; if it will, the ſooner it is off the better.

When trees are much thinned, they are ſubject to throw out great quantity of young ſhoots in the ſpring, which I requeſted the tenants to be particularly careful to rub off: it is neceſſary that they be rubbed, and not cut; for cutting increaſes the number.

As our work drew near a concluſion, one of the tenants ſaid, we underſtand our buſineſs ſo well, that I wiſh we had another job; upon which my ſervant obſerved, you had better keep in your own pariſh, for the people are much diſſatisfied. The truth is, we had no comforters; for the country was againſt us. If the land had been under my own culture, I ſhould have taken off half as much more; but I did not chooſe to offend the perſons whom I wiſhed to inſtruct.

I went down again, in the ſpring of 1791, to ſee the effect, and found the tenants much pleaſed with the operation, and did not find one wound in a hundred but what was in a clear healing ſtate: and the healing of the wounds is the buſineſs; for nothing but prejudice can make a perſon think, that a tree overloaded with wood will produce good fruit: you may as well expect a crop of large turnips without hoeing; and I am in great hopes that pruning will become as general as hoeing; and I am ſure it is as neceſſary.

The medicated tar above mentioned, as uſed in the foregoing experiments, was compoſed of one quarter of an ounce of corroſive ſublimate, reduced to fine powder, by beating with a wooden hammer, and then put into a three-pint earthen pipkin, with about a glaſs full of gin, or other ſpirit, ſtirred well together, and the ſublimate thus diſſolved. The pipkin was then filled, by degrees, with vegetable or common tar, and conſtantly ſtirred, till the mixture was blended together as intimately as poſſible; and this quantity will, at any time, be ſufficient for two hundred trees.

To prevent danger, let the corroſive ſublimate be mixed with the tar as quickly as poſſible, after it is purchaſed; for, being of a very poiſonous nature to all animals, it ſhould not be ſuffered to lie about a houſe, for fear of miſchief to ſome part of the family.

Mr. Boulding gives the following account of the ſucceſs of the methods above mentioned, in his orchard, in a letter dated Sittingbourne, November 17, 1792.

The

The orchard is now in good condition; and, by experience, I highly approve of pruning the trees: though this laſt ſeaſon was very unfavourable for all kinds of fruits, ſtill the fruit, the produce of this ſeaſon, far exceeds the quality of that of my neighbours. The Flemiſh cherry was every tree blighted, owing to the ſharp froſty mornings, when in bloom; therefore produced no fruit this year. The produce of the Engliſh cherry, May-duke, amber-heart, Turkey-heart, white-heart, and black-heart, very large, fine, and plentiful, far exceeding that of my neighbours. The apples far exceed all this part of the county; the produce plentiful, and very fine in quality; free from ſpecks, and of a fine ſize: that of my neighbours, the produce ſmall, fruit ſmall, and very ſpecky; therefore, of a very bad quality.

METHOD *to prevent* HARES *and* RABBITS *barking young Plantations*: *By* William Pattenſon, *Eſq. of* Ibornden, *in* Kent.

[From the SAME.]

HARES, rabbits, and rats, have a natural antipathy to tar; but tar, though fluid, contracts, when expoſed to the ſun and air for a time, a great dryneſs, and a very binding quality; and, if applied to trees in its natural ſtate, will occaſion them to be bark-bound. To remove this difficulty, tar is of ſo ſtrong a ſavour, that a ſmall quantity, mixed with other things in their nature open and looſe, will give the whole mixture ſuch a degree of its own taſte and ſmell as will prevent hares, &c. touching what it is applied to.

Take any quantity of tar, and ſix or ſeven times as much greaſe, ſtirring and mixing them well together; with this compoſition bruſh the ſtems of young trees, as high as hares, &c. can reach; and it will effectually prevent their being barked. I believe, if a plantation of aſh (which they are very fond of) were made in a rabbit-warren, this mixture would certainly preſerve it.

They do great miſchief among flowering ſhrubs, are particularly fond of Spaniſh broom, ſcorpion-ſenna, and ever-green cytiſus. I have had thoſe ſhrubs eat down to a ſtump; but, as the mixture cannot be conveniently applied to them, I have incloſed their branches with new tar twine by putting it ſeveral times round the ſhrub, which has had the deſired effect; tar twine, by being expoſed to the air and rain, will loſe its ſmell; conſequently, muſt be renewed as occaſion requires; but the mixture is always to be preferred, where it can be uſed.

METHOD *of preſerving* SEEDS, *when ſown, from* VERMIN: *By* Mr. Henry Browne *of* Derby.

[From the SAME.]

I HAVE made uſe of a very ſimple method for the three laſt years; in which time I have never loſt a ſeed by vermin, although they have burrowed, in a direct line with almoſt every row of peas and beans that have been ſowed. It is nothing more than ſteeping the grain, or ſeed, three or four hours, or a ſufficient time for it to penetrate the ſkin, or huſk, in a ſtrong ſolution of liver of ſulphur.

ARAN-

ARANTHES *and* ASPASIA: *A Hiſtory founded on Fact.*

ARANTHES was ſon to the governor of one of the Mediterranean Iſlands, and favoured with all the advantages of nature, fortune, and education. Aſpaſia was a Greek lady, beautiful beyond expreſſion, and admired by all the youth of Athens, which was then the place of reſort for all the faſhionable and polite of the Roman empire.

Their mutual merit ſoon produced a mutual eſteem; and this, after ſome time, was converted into the moſt ardent paſſion. They both indulged the hopes of being happy in each other for life, when Aranthes, returning home to obtain his father's conſent, was taken by a pirate, ſold into the internal parts of Africa, and there condemned to toil with the moſt unremitting ſeverity.

Aſpaſia, in the mean time, felt all that love and impatience could inſpire. An entire year paſſed away, without her hearing any news of her lover: another came, but ſtill the ſame ſilence: at length, an account arrived, that Aranthes was no more; ſo that Aſpaſia now loſt her love in deſperation.

Time, that obliterates every grief, by degrees mitigated the pain which Aſpaſia endured. She was, at laſt, brought to liſten to new addreſſes, and ſo far prevailed upon by the admonitions of her parents, that ſhe conſented to go into France, with an old merchant, who intended her for his ſon, then in Africa, trading with the natives of that barbarous region. Her voyage was ſucceſsful; and if her refined and elegant manners charmed the old gentleman, the ſon, who ſoon after returned, was not leſs enchanted with her perſon, her accompliſhments, and her virtues.

A day was fixed upon for their nuptials; and as he was the moſt opulent man in the country, all the inhabitants came ſucceſſively to offer their congratulations. In order, moreover, to add ſtill greater ſpendour to the ſolemnity, the young merchant, who was to be the bridegroom, made her a preſent of fifty ſlaves, who were at that time juſt landed, and within half a day's journey, to attend her.

As the preſence of ſuch a number of ſlaves, it was thought, would add to the magnificence of the entertainment, they were led up to the merchant's palace, loaded with merchandiſe, as was the cuſtom in that age, and bending beneath their ſorrows and fatigue. Aſpaſia felt all that humanity can inſpire, at the ſight of ſuch diſtreſs, while they paſſed in ſucceſſion before her. But who can conceive her emotions, when, among the hindmoſt of theſe unhappy wretches, ſhe beheld her own Aranthes, emaciated by labour and affliction, and with his eyes unalterably fixed upon the ground. She gave a loud convulſive ſhriek, and fell ſenſeleſs into the arms of her attendants. As her ſituation naturally drew the eyes of all upon her, Aranthes ſaw once again the dear object of his earlieſt paſſion, and flew with haſte to her aſſiſtance. Their ſtory, and his misfortunes, were ſoon made known to the company, and the young merchant, with the moſt exalted and uncommon generoſity, reſigned his miſtreſs, and all his fondeſt proſpects, to the earlier claim of Aranthes.

Were this ſtory a novel, it would end with the greateſt propriety at this place; but it is real hiſtory, and a regard to truth diſagreeably lengthens the narration. Aranthes and Aſpaſia, after the ſolemnization of their nuptials, were one day ſitting in a window, at their country houſe in the vicinity of Lyons, happy in each other, and flushed with expectations of ſtill greater rapture, when a heedleſs youth, who with a bow had been ſhooting at birds in a neighbouring grove, drew it at random, and the arrow pierced both the lovers at the

ſame time. Thus, a life of misfortune was terminated by an end as unfortunate. They were both laid in the ſame grave; and their epitaph, at Lyons (which has been printed in our books of travels, although their ſtory at length is little known) ſtill continues legible; and yet their tomb has been erected near a thouſand years; a monument at once of their unfortunate loves, and of their mutual fidelity.

Let no one, in reading the hiſtory of events like this, which cut off the virtuous and the good in the fondeſt moments of felicity, arraign the conduct of Divine Providence, which permits nothing to happen to his creatures but for the wiſeſt and moſt beneficent ends. And whether the favourites of Heaven (for ſuch are the virtuous and the good) have a long fruition of felicity in this world, or whether they are juſt permitted to taſte the cup of bliſs, and their happineſs be poſtponed to a future ſcene of exiſtence, the benignity of their Guardian Crea or is ſtill the ſame. A future ſtate is the beſt ſolution of every doubt; and he who has ſuffered, or ſeen others ſuffer, in the privation of happineſs here, may adopt the ſublime and conſolatory language of the nocturnal poet:

'Tis paſt; new proſpects riſe,
And drop a veil eternal o'er the tomb.
Wrapt in the thought of immortality;
Wrapt in the ſingle, the triumphant thought,
What glorious views our contemplation claim!
Views that o'erpay the rigours of our life;
Views that ſuſpend our agonies in death.

YOUNG.

The HISTORY *of* KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, *and* TASTE, *in* Great Britain, *during the Reign of Queen* ELISABETH.

Part the Fourth and Laſt: Concluded from Page 291.

QUITTING pſalmody, we direct our attention to a ſuperior ſpecies of church muſic, which, during the time of queen Eliſabeth, was nowhere more ſucceſsfully cultivated than in England, by Robert Whyte, Thomas Tallis, William Bird, Thomas Morley, and others.—Robert White, who preceded Tallis and Bird, was an excellent compoſer of church ſervices in the ſtyle of Paleſtrina. He was not, however, an imitator of Paleſtrina, being before him in point of time. In fact, he proved himſelf to be a great maſter of the ſame ſpecies of harmony, before the productions of this chief of the Roman ſchool were publiſhed, or, at leaſt, circulated, in other parts of Europe. Admirable as his compoſitions were, they do not ſeem ever to have been printed; but thoſe of them which have been preſerved in manuſcript are ſufficient to excite not only wonder, but indignation, at the little notice that has been taken of him by muſical writers. One or two of them do, indeed, name him with ſome epithet of approbation; and that is all. No muſician had then appeared who better deſerved to be held in admiration for knowledge of harmony, and clearneſs of ſtyle, than Robert Whyte.

Thomas Tallis was one of the greateſt muſicians, not only of this country, but of Europe, during the ſixteenth century. The melody of the cathedral ſervice had been previouſly adjuſted to Engliſh words by Marbeck; but it was Tallis that enriched it with harmony. Nor indeed did he confine himſelf exactly to the melody of Marbeck; though that which he has uſed is of the ſame kind. But the harmony in which he has clothed it, is admirable; and the modulation being ſo antique, produces a ſolemn and very different effect from any muſic that has been compoſed in the preſent age. We are not to judge of the genius of the old maſters from their inſtrumental muſic, but

their vocal, in parts; where the want of accent, taſte, and invention, was compenſated for by harmony and contrivance. The Latin Motets and Hymns, which Tallis publiſhed jointly with thoſe of his diſciple Bird, are perhaps the beſt of his compoſitions that have been preſerved. Theſe compoſitions have ſince been accommodated to Engliſh words, by Dr. Aldrich and others, for the uſe of our cathedrals; and the learned contrivances with which they abound, agreeably to the faſhion of the times, are conducted with a wonderful degree of ingenuity and labour. But the moſt curious and extraordinary of all Tallis', productions was his Song of forty parts. It may now, perhaps, be eſteemed as ſomewhat Gothic in its nature; but, notwithſtanding this, it is a ſtupendous effort of harmonical abilities. The works of Tallis afford a deciſive proof, that long before the performances and reputation of Paleſtrina had ſpread throughout Europe, we had choral muſic of our own, which for gravity of ſtyle, purity of harmony, ingenuity of deſign, and clear and maſterly contexture, was not inferior to the beſt compoſitions of that great maſter.

Equal, if not ſuperior praiſes are due to William Bird, the diſciple of Tallis, and who long ſurvived his preceptor. From the great number of his eccleſiaſtical cumpoſitions to Latin words, and the ſeveral portions of the Roman Ritual which he frequently ſet to muſic, and publiſhed late in life, it may be collected that he was long a zealous adherent to that religion. That he conformed, however, to the church eſtabliſhments of queen Eliſabeth's reign, is apparent from his having been a gentleman of the Chapel Royal, and one of her majeſty's organiſts. If we conſider the elaborate ſtyle of compoſition which prevailed, particularly in the church, during the time of Bird, and that he, like his maſter Tallis, was not only ambitious of vanquiſhing its uſual difficulties in the conſtruction of fugues and canons, but ſought new complications, perplexities, and involutions, in the motion and the arrangement of the parts, the liſt of his works will not only manifeſt his diligence, but the fecundity of his invention. One of his Sacred Songs, publiſhed in 1589, has long been ſung in our cathedrals to the Engliſh words, 'Bow thine ear, O Lord,' and is an admirable piece of harmony. His pieces for the organ and virginal are almoſt without number. In the magnificent folio manuſcript, which is generally known by the name of 'Queen Eliſabeth's Virginal Book,' there are nearly ſeventy of his productions. Crowded and elaborate as is the harmony, and uncouth and antiquated the melody, of all the performances in this collection, thoſe of Bird are manifeſtly ſuperior to the reſt, both in texture and deſign. If he had lived in a later period, his genius would have diſplayed itſelf in works of genius, taſte, and elegance. But at the time in which he flouriſhed, nothing ſeems to have been thought neceſſary for keyed-inſtruments, excepting variations to old tunes, in which the harmony was ſo crowded, and the diviſions of the times ſo rapid, as to render the performer's taſk extremely difficult. Invention was ſo young and feeble, that the old chants of the church, or tunes of the ſtreet, were its leading-ſtrings and guides. Of Bird's ſacred muſic, beſide what is contained in Dr. Tudway's and Dr. Boyce's collections, ſeveral admirable monuments ſtill remain in all our cathedrals. Though choral muſic had been cultivated in England, by ſeveral able harmoniſts, before Tallis and Bird had diſtinguiſhed themſelves; yet few compoſitions, anterior to their time, have been preſerved; and of theſe few, ſcarcely any continue to be uſed in our cathedral ſervice. The two great maſters therefore, whom we have now celebrated, may with truth be called the fathers of our genuine and national ſacred muſic. 'Indeed,' ſays the excellent

guide whom we here follow, 'I have been able to find, in all my researches, no choral compositions in other parts of Europe, superior to those which have been preserved of these authors, the pride of our country, and honour of their profession!'

Thomas Morley, a disciple of Bird, acquired more celebrity by his treatise, entitled, 'A plaine and easy Introduction to practical Musice;' than by his skill as a performer, or his ability in musical composition, though in both these respects he was eminent in his day. If due allowance be made for the quaintness of the dialogue, and the style of the times, and if the work be considered as the first regular treatise on music that was printed in our language, much praise will be due to the author for the learning and instruction which it contains. Its utility, indeed, is at present not a little diminished, by the disuse of many things which cost Mr. Morley great pains to explain; and by the introduction, since his time, of new methods of notation, new harmonies, and new modulations. But, though the work is redundant in some particulars, and deficient in others, it is still curious; and it cannot be denied that it was excellently adapted to the wants of the age in which it was written. If Morley be considered as a practical musician, his compositions, compared with those of his predecessors, will not be found to be so original as might have been expected. His melodies, however, are somewhat more flowing and polished than those of the old authors. A burial-service, which was set by him, and which is supposed to be the first that was composed after the Reformation, still continues to be used in Westminster Abbey, on great and solemn occasions.

The reign of queen Elisabeth was perhaps not rendered more illustrious by the musical productions of Tallis, Bird, and Morley, than by the practical performances of Dr. John Bull. His abilities on the organ and virginal seem to have been truly wonderful. Such was his reputation, that, by the recommendation of his royal mistress, he had the honour of being the first that was appointed music-professor to Gresham college; and the statute of the founder, requiring lectures to be read in Latin, as well as English, was dispensed with in his favour. He has had the farther honour to be the only person on the list of music professors, who seems to have been able to inform by theory, or to amuse by practice, those who have attended the musical lectures. In a Life of Dr. Bull, which was published about fifty years ago, a catalogue is given of more than two hundred of his compositions, vocal and instrumental. Considering that he was possessed of such extraordinary powers of execution on keyed-instruments, it is matter of surprize, in perusing his lessons, that there will be found not many new and pleasing passages; not so many, at least, as it might have been expected that his hand would have suggested to his pen.

The instrumental music of queen Elisabeth's reign was not equal to the vocal. It partook of the pedantry and foppery of the times. Eternal fugues, upon dry and unmeaning subjects, were the means of establishing a reputation for learning and contrivance; and numerous divisions and variations seem to have been the only qualifications which entitled a professor to eminence for taste and invention. Bird and Bull (to whom may be added the name of Giles Farnaby) though great musicians, seem to have had no conception of brilliancy or embellishment, beyond what arose from breaking common chords into *arpeggio*, or rapidly running up and down the scale in notes tied, three, and often four times. However, with all their faults, they appear to have been the greatest players in Europe, till Frescobaldi introduced a superior style of treating the organ, divested of rapid and frivolous divisions, which disgrace that most noble and comprehensive of all instruments.

The ſecular vocal muſic of England, during the early part of Eliſabeth's reign, was much inferior to that of the church, if a judgment can be fairly formed of it, from a book of ſongs, printed in 1571, by John Daye. Both the words and the muſic of theſe ſongs, which preceded thoſe publiſhed by Bird, are truly barbarous. We are not, however, lightly to conſider them as characteriſing the age in which they appeared, ſince there is no proof that they were ever in much public favour. Our countrymen did not firſt learn to admire the muſic of Italy from the ſweetneſs of its language, or its fine ſinging, but from Italian madrigals, with a literal tranſlation into Engliſh, adjuſted to the original muſic, and publiſhed by N. Yonge, in 1588. Theſe, being ſelected from the works of various celebrated maſters of the continent, ſeem to have given birth to that paſſion for madrigals, which became ſo prevalent among us afterward, and which has been ſo amply gratified by the compoſers of our own nation. Allowing for the wretched ſtate of Lyric poetry in England at this period (for Spenſer's and Shakſpeare's Sonnets had not yet appeared) Yonge's undertaking was tolerably executed. Indeed, there were ſometimes ſuch care and facility in the execution, that the expreſſion of the original words was tranſfuſed into that of the verſion. A ſecond collection of the ſame kind was publiſhed, in 1590, by Thomas Watſon; a third, by Yonge himſelf, in 1597; and a fourth, by Morley, in 1598. Thomas Weelkes and George Kirbye printed their firſt books of Engliſh madrigals, in 1597. John Wilbye's were given to the world in 1598; and Thomas Bennet's in the ſucceeding year. Weelkes, Kirbye, Wilbye, and Bennet, may be ranked among the beſt madrigaliſts of our country. Many of their productions have lately been revived at the concert of ancient muſic, and the catch-club, with ſuch perfection of execution, that effects have been produced, of which it is probable the authors themſelves, even in the warm and enthuſiaſtic moments of conception, had but little idea.—Other muſical compoſers of celebrity at this period, were John Mundy, Michael Eſte, John Hilton, Thomas Tomkins, John Farmer, and John Milton, the father of the poet. Several of theſe perſons continued to flouriſh in the next reign.—Of John Dowland, it is aſſerted by Anthony Wood, that 'he was the rareſt muſician that his age did behold.' But the compoſitions which he has left behind him by no means juſtify ſo high an encomium. The fact was, that he was a captivating performer on the lute; but he does not appear to have poſſeſſed the genius and cultivation which were neceſſary to render him an excellent compoſer.

Inſtrumental muſic, in the ſixteenth century, had made, comparatively, but a ſmall progreſs toward perfection. The only inſtruments for which any tolerable muſic had been expreſsly compoſed, were the lute and the virginal; the wonderful powers of the violin being then ſcarcely known. It is therefore upon the church muſic, madrigals, and ſongs in parts, that the reputation of our countrymen, during the reign of queen Eliſabeth, depends. In point of harmony and contrivances, which are the chief excellencies of ſuch compoſitions, the works of the Engliſh muſicians were in no reſpect inferior to the productions of their moſt celebrated contemporaries on the continent. Taſte, rhythm, accent, and grace, having then no exiſtence, even in idea, could not be wanted or expected; and it is neceſſarily the buſineſs of artiſts to cultivate and refine what is in the greateſt eſteem among the beſt judges of their own nation and times. To this praiſe our compoſers attained; and no other period will be found in which we were ſo much on a level with the reſt of Europe, in muſical genius and learning.

Mr. Walpole (now earl of Orford) will

will be our guide in what is neceſſary to be ſaid with regard to the ſtate of painting in England, in the age we are conſidering. There is no evidence that Elizabeth had much taſte for the art; but ſhe loved pictures of herſelf. In them ſhe could appear really handſome; and yet, to the honour of the profeſſion, it muſt be obſerved, that ſhe was the leaſt flattered of any of her court. There is not a ſingle portrait of her that can be called beautiful.—The firſt painter who ſeems to have made any figure during this reign, was Lucas de Heere, a native of Ghent, and of a family peculiarly addicted to the arts. John, his father, was a good ſtatuary and architect; and Anne Smither, his mother, painted in miniature with ſuch diminutive neatneſs, that ſhe executed a landſcape, with a windmill, millers, a cart and horſe, and paſſengers, and half a grain would cover the whole compoſition. From ſuch parents Lucas de Heere could not fail to derive conſiderable advantages for the exerciſe of his profeſſion. Nor was he a painter only, but a poet. He wrote the Orchard of Poeſie; and tranſlated, from the French of Marot, the Temple of Cupid, and other pieces; beſide which, he began the lives of the Flemiſh painters in verſe. In what year he arrived in England is not certain; nor were his works at all known here, till ſeveral of them were diſcovered by the indefatigable induſtry of Mr. Vertue. From a liſt of them, it appears that de Heere was employed by the queen, and the principal nobility and gentry of the time.

Another painter, Cornelius Ketel, was born at Gouda, and early proſecuted his art with great ardour, under the direction of an uncle, who was a tolerable proficient in painting, but a better ſcholar. Ketel, after having practiſed in France, and in his own country, embarked, in 1573, for England, and was entertained in London by a ſculptor and architect there, a friend of his uncle. Here his works grew into eſteem; and he was much employed by the merchants in painting portraits, but was ſeldom engaged on hiſtory, to which his inclination chiefly led him. Having however painted an allegoric piece, of Strength vanquiſhed by Wiſdom, it was purchaſed by a young merchant, and preſented to ſir Chriſtopher Hatton. By this incident Ketel was introduced to court, drew the portraits of ſome of the firſt characters of the age, and had the honour of painting the queen herſelf. At length, not ſatisfied with the glory he had acquired by his various performances, ſeveral of which were of an hiſtorical nature, he formed the ſcheme of making himſelf known by a method of painting entirely new. Laying aſide his bruſh, he painted only with his fingers, and began with his own portrait. The whim took; ſo that he repeated the practice; and it is pretended that theſe fantaſtic works were executed with great purity and beauty of colouring. His folly increaſed ſo much with his ſucceſs, that at laſt his fingers appeared to be tools of too eaſy a kind, and he undertook to paint with his feet. Even in this ridiculous caprice he was indulged with the applauſe of the public. It has been obſerved concerning the works of de Heere and Ketel, that thoſe of the former are generally ſmaller than the life, neater, not ſo ſtrongly coloured, and moſt commonly painted on board; while thoſe of the latter are more ſtrongly coloured, and with a fuller pencil, and are always as large or rather larger than nature.

The next painter, who reſided for a time in England, is a name of ſuperior note, being celebrated even in the liſts of the great Italian maſters. This was Frederic Zucchero, the younger brother of Taddeo. He came over to London, in 1574, and the queen ſat to him for her picture, as did the queen of Scots. A ſecond portrait of Eliſabeth was drawn by him in a very fantaſtic habit. He painted likewiſe ſeveral other eminent perſons;

perſons; but his ſtay in this country was not long: for hiſtoric ſubjects were not in fashion, and he was offended at our religion.

Marc Gerrard, a native of Bruges, and a ſon of a painter of the ſame name, practiſed hiſtory, landſcape, architecture, and portrait. He was employed alſo in engraving, illuminating, and deſigning for glaſs-painters. By his etchings for Æſop's Fables, and his View of Bruges, he gained much eſtimation. He came into England about the year 1580, and remained here till his death, which happened in an advanced age. His works, which are very numerous, are in general neatly executed. One of his principal performances was a proceſſion which he drew of the queen and knights of the garter, in 1584, from which Aſhmole took his plate for the hiſtory of that order. Though the portraits are ſmall, they have great reſemblance, with the uncommon fidelity of repreſenting the air, ſtature, and bulk of the perſons exhibited.—An Introduction to the general Art of Drawing, compoſed by the elder Marc Garrard, was tranſlated and publiſhed in Engliſh, in 1574.

Henry Cornelius Vroom, whoſe inclination firſt led him to paint views of towns, was brought into England by a peculiar circumſtance. When the great earl of Nottingham, by the defeat of the Spaniſh armada, had eſtabliſhed the throne of his miſtreſs; being deſirous of preſerving a detail of that illuſtrious event, he beſpoke a ſuit of tapeſtry, deſcribing the particulars of each day's engagement. The perſon who undertook the work, Francis Spiering, engaged Vroom to draw the deſigns; and that the taſk was performed by him in an excellent manner, is ſo well known to all who have viſited the houſe of lords, that it is needleſs to enlarge on his praiſe.

Theſe were the principal performers in oil during queen Eliſabeth's reign. Several names, of inferior note, might be added; but it is not our purpoſe to enter into minute details.—With regard to painters in miniature, paſſing over Petruchio Ubaldini, it gives us pleaſure to come at length to a native of our own country. This was Nicholas Hilliard, who was brought up to the buſineſs of a jeweller and goldſmith; but his genius ſoon carried him beyond the limits of his particular profeſſion. The object to which his inclination led him, was painting in miniature; in which however he had not the advantage of an able inſtructor. In this exigence he betook himſelf to the ſtudy of the works of Holbein, whoſe manner of limning he ever imitated and held for the beſt. But though he copied the neatneſs of his model, he was far from attaining the nature and force which that great maſter impreſſed on his moſt minute works. Hilliard did not arrive at any ſtrength of colouring; his faces being pale, and void of the proper variety of tints. One thing in which he excelled, was in a curious delineation of the exact dreſs of the times. He ſeldom attempted beyond a head. Whatever faults may now be found in him, it is certain that his performances were greatly valued; and we know that he has been ſpoken of in high terms of applauſe by contemporary writers. When he was young he drew the queen of Scots; and Eliſabeth, in whoſe reign he continued in much vogue, ſat to him often. He was a favourite with the ladies, many of whoſe portraits, by his hands, are ſtill extant. He obtained yet greater favour from king James; for, beſide drawing his majeſty's and prince Henry's pictures, he received a patent, which was highly to his emolument.

But the greateſt obligation that we owe to Hilliard is his having contributed to the formation of Iſaac Oliver. Hitherto the Engliſh were indebted to other countries for the beſt performances exhibited here in painting: but in the branch in which Oliver excelled (that of miniature) we may challenge any nation to produce a greater

a greater maſter, if perhaps a few of the ſmaller works of Holbein be excepted. Among our own countrymen, there is no artiſt who can be put into competition with Oliver, unleſs it be Cooper. Even Cooper, though living in an age of freer pencil, and under the auſpices of Vandyke, ſcarcely compenſated, by the boldneſs of his expreſſion, for the truth and delicate fidelity of the older maſter. Iſaac Oliver had a ſon, Peter, who alone approached to the perfection of his father. Of Oliver's family there is no certain account; nor is it a matter of any conſequence, his genius having raiſed him above diſtinctions of that kind. Among his numerous and admirable pieces, there is a portrait of himſelf, in the poſſeſſion of the preſent earl of Orford, which juſtifies all the encomiums that have been paſſed upon him. The art of the maſter and the imitation of nature, are ſo great in this picture, that the largeſt magnifying glaſs only calls out new beauties. Another of his invaluable works is at the lord Montacute's at Coudray, repreſenting three brothers of that lord's family. Oliver did not always confine himſelf to water-colours. There are inſtances of his working in oil: but his productions in this ſpecies of painting, though far from being deſtitute of merit, are not to be compared with his other performances.

There appear to have been two gentlemen painters in the reign of Eliſabeth. One was John Twiſden, a divine, who drew a ſmall portrait of himſelf, neatly executed. The other was ſir Nathaniel Bacon, knight of the Bath, and a younger ſon of the lord-keeper. This gentleman really attained the perfection of a maſter. He travelled into Italy, and ſtudied painting in that country; but his manner and colouring approach nearer to the ſtyle of the Flemiſh ſchool. Some of his works are preſerved at Culford, where he lived; and at Gorhambury, which was the ſeat of his father, is a large picture in oil, done by him, which is admirably painted.

The age of Eliſabeth was not deficient in engravers; ſeveral of whom had conſiderable merit. It will be ſufficient, in this place, barely to recite their names. The artiſts we refer to were, Dr. William Cunyngham, Ralph Aggas, Humphrey Cole, John Bettes, William Rogers, Chriſtopher Saxton, George Hoefnagle, and Robert Adams.—There was at this time a paſſion for the portraits of remarkable perſons; and at the ſame period was introduced the cuſtoms of publiſhing repreſentations of magnificent funerals.

There is no occaſion to enlarge on the patrons of literature during Eliſabeth's reign, as all thoſe whoſe names we recollect in this view have already been noticed on other accounts. The perſons that occur to us, as principally deſerving here to be mentioned, are lord Buckhurſt, lord Burleigh, archbiſhop Parker, Thomas Radcliffe earl of Suſſex, Robert Devereux earl of Eſſex, and ſir Philip Sidney. We apprehend that the two laſt of theſe illuſtrious men ſhould be ranked above the reſt as the Mæcenaſes of the age.

Of literary foundations there was one at Oxford, and two at Cambridge. At Oxford, Jeſus College was eſtabliſhed by Dr. Hugh Price, treaſurer of St. David's. The advantages of this inſtitution are chiefly confined to the Welch; its benefactors, its principals, and its ſcholars, having, with very few exceptions, been natives of the principality.—At Cambridge, Emanuel College was founded by ſir Walter Mildmay, and Sidney-Suſſex College, by the lady Frances Sidney, counteſs of Suſſex. It may truly be ſaid concerning each of theſe ſeminaries, that they have produced names which reflect honour upon religion and learning.

The literary hiſtory of queen Eliſabeth's reign is a curious and intereſting object; on which account it has demanded an extent of diſcuſſion that could not be ſupplied or merited by any former period. Various branches of ſcience and of art were, indeed, in

an

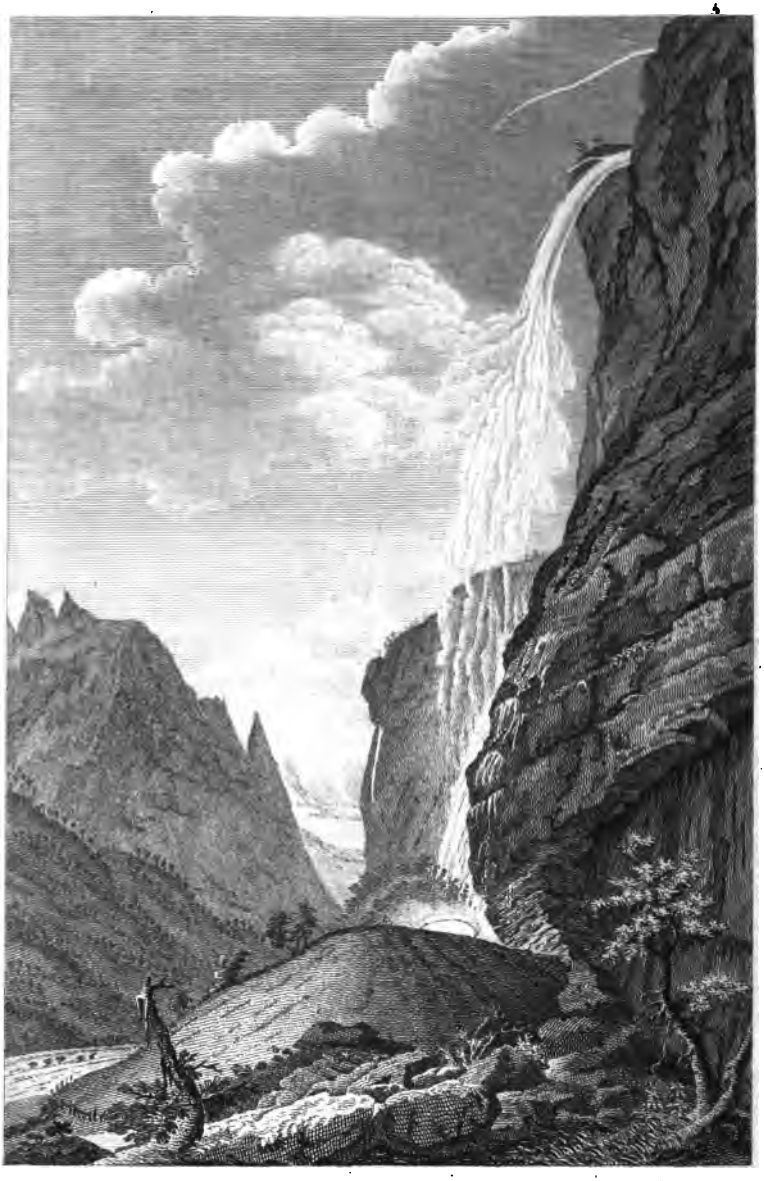
an imperfect ſtate, compared with what has been attained in ſucceeding times. Nevertheleſs, the age we have been treating of, conſtitutes a great epocha in the Annals of Britiſh Knowledge and Literature. It was productive of manly, vigorous, and enlarged minds. Several of its authors were very illuſtrious; and ſome of them will continue to be read and admired by the lateſt poſterity.

LOCAL CURIOSITIES *and* ANECDOTES.

ON the weſtern ſhore of the Lake of Zug, in Swiſſerland, is a promontory, called Kieman, which is a very curious inſtance of divided property; for the ground belongs to the canton of Lucerne, the timber to that of Zug, and the leaves to that of Schweitz. In this neighbourhood too is exhibited an aſtoniſhing proof of confidence: On each ſide of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz, are ſeveral ranges of ſmall ſhops, uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, the prices of which are marked: any paſſengers, who wiſh to become purchaſers, enter the ſhops, take away the merchandiſe, and depoſit the price, which the owners call for in the evening.

THE inviolable attention which the Arabs (even thoſe who are profeſſed robbers) pay to the duties of hoſpitality, which their religion preſcribes, is ſtrongly exemplified in the following anecdote: by the order of the late inhuman emperor of Morocco, the French merchants, who were ſettled at St. Croix, were commanded to remove to Mogador. In their way thither, an Arab chief, who was reſolved to plunder this caravan, had placed a body of 400 men, well armed, near one of the defiles, through which it was obliged to paſs. The merchants, whoſe guard was much inferior in number, muſt have fallen victims to the rapacity and cruelty of theſe robbers, if a ſudden and violent rain had not obliged the caravan to halt before they came to the paſs. Night was approaching, when the guide propoſed to alter their courſe, and to proceed to the habitation of the chief; of whoſe intention they were ignorant. On their arrival, they implored his protection, and unloaded their camels. He frankly told them, that he had poſted 400 men with a view to intercept them; ſaying, that the prophet muſt have inſpired them with the thought of taking refuge with him, by which they had eſcaped a ſnare, they could not otherwiſe have avoided. He added, that they had now nothing to fear; that he was commanded by his religion to protect them; and that his men, inſtead of attacking them, ſhould eſcort them to Mogador. He kept his word, and would neither accept of any preſent himſelf, nor ſuffer any to be given to his people.

IN the 'Memoires de l'Academie Royal de Berlin,' juſt publiſhed, we find the following pleaſing anecdote of the celebrated M. de la Bruyere, which appears to have eſcaped his biographers. This admirable writer uſed to frequent the ſhop of a bookſeller, named Michallet, where he amuſed himſelf with reading the new pamphlets, and playing with the bookſeller's daughter, an engaging child, of whom he was very fond. One day, taking the manuſcript of his *characters* out of his pocket, he offered it to Michallet, ſaying, 'Will you print this? I know not whether you will gain any thing by it: but, ſhould it ſucceed, let the profits make the dowry of my little friend here.'—The bookſeller, though doubtful with reſpect to the reſult, ventured on the publication. The firſt impreſſion was ſoon ſold off; ſeveral editions were afterward printed; the



The Cataract of Staubbach, in Switzerland.

UNIV. OF MICH.

profits of the work amounted to a very large ſum; and with this fortune miſs Michallet was afterward very advantageouſly married.

A tranſlation of Cæſar's Commentaries was publiſhed at Paris, in 1651, as the performance of Lewis XIV; on which account this monarch was ranked among the learned. The juſtice of this claim may be determined by the queſtion which he aſked the biſhop of Frejus, after hearing the word *quemadmodum* repeated ſeveral times in an anthem performed before him, who this *Prince Quemadmodum* was?

The reformation from the church of Rome, in the ſanguinary reign of queen Mary, found ſuch an able advocate in a pious miniſter of the name of *Crow*, that his enemies deemed him worthy of martyrdom, which he ſuffered with the pleaſantry of a More and the conſtancy of a Huſs. Such of his friends as preferred temporal to eternal intereſt, ſtrove to perſuade him, as he approached the ſtake, to relinquiſh theſe ſentiments which he was going to ſeal with his blood, on account of his family, which was large and helpleſs: to which he anſwered with a ſmile, 'Ye all know that I love my family—but He that feeds the *ravens*, will not forget the young *crows*.'—His confidence was not miſplaced.

At Richenau, in Swiſſerland, is a rich Benedictine abbey, in which is ſhown, among other relics, a curious tooth of Charles the Fat. That monarch, who was emperor and king of France, and who poſſeſſed dominions as extenſive as thoſe of Charlemagne, lived to want the common neceſſaries of life, and to depend for his ſubſiſtence upon the charity of an archbiſhop of Mentz. He was publicly depoſed, in 887, at the meeting of the French, German, and Italian barons, *whom he himſelf had ſummoned*! After having languiſhed a year, in extreme want and miſery, he died at a ſmall village, near Mentz, in Germany; and his remains were conveyed to the convent of Richenau.

An Account of the CATARACT *of* STAUBBACH, *in* Swiſſerland: *With a beautiful Perſpective View of that ſtupendous* FALL, *and the romantic Scenery around it.*

IN the bailiwick of Interlacken and canton of Bern, in Swiſſerland, is Lauterbrunnen, a village, or rather collection of cottages, ſprinkled, like thoſe of Grindelwald, about the valley and acceſſible parts of the hills. Near the clergyman's houſe is the celebrated cataract of Staubbach, to view which is almoſt the only motive, that induces a great number of travellers, every ſummer, to viſit the valley of Lauterbrunnen. 'This torrent,' ſays Mr. Coxe, 'rolls perpendicularly from ſo conſiderable a height, as to reſolve itſelf into fine ſpray; the greateſt part of it falls clear of the overhanging mountain, during its whole deſcent; but the remainder daſhes about half way againſt a projection from the rock, and flies off with great violence. The clergyman meaſured, a ſhort time ago, its perpendicular height, and found it nine hundred and thirty feet. The ſun ſhining in an oppoſite direction, a miniature rainbow was reflected toward the bottom of the fall: while I ſtood at ſome diſtance, the rainbow aſſumed a ſemicircular figure; as I approached, the extreme points gradually coincided, and formed a complete circle of the moſt lively and brilliant colours. In order to have a ſtill finer view, I ventured nearer and

nearer; the circle at the ſame time becoming ſmaller and ſmaller; and as I ſtood quite under the fall, it ſuddenly diſappeared. When I looked up to the torrent, in this ſituation, it reſembled a cloud of duſt: and from this circumſtance indeed it takes its name; Staubbach ſignifying, in the German language, a ſpring of *duſt*. I paid for my curioſity, by being extremely wet; but then I had the ſatisfaction, at the ſame time, of ſeeing a rainbow in miniature: no uncommon phænomenon, as it may be obſerved in any caſcade, upon which the ſun ſhines directly in a certain poſition. In the preſent inſtance, however, it was ſome conſolation to me, that the object happened to be peculiarly ſtriking.'

The annexed view exhibits the profile of this magnificent caſcade. With ſuch impetuous violence the torrent ruſhes down a precipice upward of nine hundred feet high, that its waters, in a manner, leave near two thirds of the rock dry, and do not reach, but at this diſtance, the lower projecting rocks which it covers with froth, ruſhing with a roaring noiſe, into the baſin below; accompanied by a tempeſt, occaſioned by the violent agitation of the air, excited by the rapidity of this fall. The circular hillock, near the rainbow, at the foot of the rock, from the top of which we may contemplate this beautiful phenomenon, forms one of the ſides of the reſervoir. Above the great torrent, is ſeen another ſmaller fall, floating in the air, at the pleaſure of the winds. This brook is named the Kupfer-backlein, or Rivulet of Copper. The ſide of the rock, beyond that of Staubbach, is called *Schneeff*. At the extremity of it, which is almoſt perpendicular, a maſs of rock overhangs, and from which ruſhes a conſiderable brook. On the oppoſite part of the landſcape, is ſeen, at the extremity of the Mount of the Virgin, an iſolated conical point, called the Monk, from its exact reſemblance to a monk's hood. In the diſtance appear mountains of ſnow and glaciers.

A Curious Account of the BAYA, *or* INDIAN-GROSS-BEAK: *By* At'har Ali' Khan *of* Delhi.

[From Aſiatic Reſearches, Vol. II.]

THE Baya is rather larger than a ſparrow, with yellow-brown plumage, a yellowiſh head and feet, a light-coloured breaſt, and a conic beak very thick in proportion to his body. He builds his neſt on the higheſt tree, placing it with its entrance downward, to ſecure it from birds of prey. He lights his neſt by means of fire flies, which he catches alive during the night, and confines by means of moiſt clay. He may be taught to fetch any ſmall thing that his maſter points out to him. It is an atteſted fact, that if a ring be dropped into a deep well, and a ſignal be given to him, he will fly down with amazing celerity, catch the ring before it touches the water, and bring it up to his maſter with apparent exultation. The young Hindoo women at Benares, and in other places, wear thin plates of gold, called tica's, ſlightly fixed, by way of ornament, between their eyebrows; and when they paſs through the ſtreets, it is not uncommon for the youthful libertines, who amuſe themſelves with training bayas, to give them a ſign which they underſtand, and ſend them to pluck the pieces of gold from the foreheads of their miſtreſſes, which they bring in triumph to their lovers.

MEMOIR

MEMOIRS *of the* LIFE *of Mrs.* MARY DELANY.

[From Biographia Britannica, Vol. V. juſt publiſhed.]

MRS. Mary Delany, a lady of diſtinguiſhed ingenuity and merit, was born at a ſmall country houſe of her father's, at Coulſton, in Wiltſhire, on the 14th of May, 1700. Her deſcent was highly honourable, ſhe being the daughter of Bernard Granville, eſq. a younger brother of George Granville, eſq. afterward lord Landſdown, a nobleman whoſe abilities and virtues, whoſe character as a poet, whoſe friendſhip with Pope, Swift, and other eminent writers of the time, and whoſe general patronage of men of genius and literature, have ſo often been recorded in biographical productions, that they cannot be unknown to any of our readers. As the child of ſuch a family, ſhe could not fail of receiving the beſt education. Before her marriage, ſhe reſided chiefly at Whitehall, with her aunt lady Stanley, whoſe huſband, ſir John Stanley, was a commiſſioner of the cuſtoms under king William, and was a very wiſe and accompliſhed man. Miſs Granville made, however, frequent viſits to her uncle Landſdown in the country; and, in his ſociety, who united the accompliſhments of the polite courtier with thoſe of the elegant ſcholar, her underſtanding was improved, her taſte refined, and ſhe acquired a grace and dignity of manners which ſhe preſerved to the cloſe of her life. It was at Long Leat, the ſeat of the Weymouth family, which was occupied by lord Landſdown, during the minority of the heir of that family, that miſs Granville firſt ſaw Alexander Pendarves, eſq. a gentleman of large property at Roſcrow, in the county of Cornwall, and who immediately paid his addreſſes to her; which were ſo ſtrenuouſly ſupported by her uncle, whom ſhe had not the courage to deny, that ſhe gave a reluctant conſent to the match; and, accordingly, it took place in the compaſs of two or three weeks, ſhe being then in the ſeventeenth year of her age. From a great diſparity of years, and other cauſes, ſhe was very unhappy during the time in which this connection laſted. However, ſhe endeavoured to make the beſt of her ſituation. The retirement to which ſhe was confined was wiſely employed by her in the farther cultivation of a naturally vigorous underſtanding: and the good uſe ſhe made of her leiſure hours was eminently evinced in the charms of her converſation, and in her letters to her friends. That quick feeling of the elegant and beautiful which conſtitutes taſte, was poſſeſſed by her in an eminent degree; and, therefore, ſhe was peculiarly fitted for ſucceeding in the fine arts. At the period we are ſpeaking of, ſhe made a great proficiency in muſic. As to painting, which afterward ſhe moſt loved, and in which ſhe principally excelled, it had not as yet engaged her practical attention. In 1724, Mrs. Pendarves became a widow; upon which occaſion ſhe quitted Cornwall, and fixed her principal reſidence in London; where ſhe took a houſe firſt in Clarges-ſtreet, and afterward in Upper Brook-ſtreet. In the laſt houſe ſhe continued till her marriage with Dr. Delany. For ſeveral years, between 1730 and 1736, ſhe maintained a correſpondence with Dr. Swift. Two of her letters, written in 1736, are inſerted in the dean's works, and will ſerve to diſplay the ſtrength and vivacity of her mind, and the ingenious and judicious manner in which it was exerciſed and improved. Her cuſtom was, as ſhe informs Dr. Swift, to riſe at between five and ſix in the morning, and to go to bed at eleven at night. From the ſame letters, it appears how well Mrs. Pendarves was qualified to find reſources in herſelf; for ſhe declares, that living alone was a pleaſanter thing than ſhe imagined. It

has been obſerved, that there is ſomething of an air of ſtiffneſs and conſtraint in her correſpondence with the dean of St. Patrick's, which, without doubt, was inſpired by her awe of him, and which was very different from the unaffected eaſe and elegance of thoſe to her intimate friends. In 1743, Mrs. Pendarves was married to Dr. Delany, with whom it appears that ſhe had long been acquainted; and for whom ſhe had many years entertained a high eſteem. She had been a widow nineteen years when this connection, which was a very happy one, took place. We are aſſured, from unqueſtionable authority, that her huſband regarded her almoſt to adoration. Upon his deceaſe, in May 1768, ſhe intended to fix herſelf at Bath, and was in queſt of a houſe for that purpoſe. But the ducheſs dowager of Portland, hearing of her deſign, went down to the place, to prevent her coming to ſuch a reſolution. The ducheſs, who in her early years had formed an intimacy with Mrs. Delany, wiſhed to have near her a lady from whom ſhe had neceſſarily, for ſeveral years, been much ſeparated, and whoſe heart and talents ſhe knew would in the higheſt degree add to the happineſs of her own life. Her grace ſucceeded in her ſolicitations. In the following winter, Mrs. Delany went to the ducheſs of Portland's at Whitehall, and in the ſpring of 1769, ſhe took a ſmall houſe in Thatched-houſe-court, in St. James'-ſtreet. Here ſhe reſided till ſhe could find a houſe more ſuited to her inclination. Such a houſe ſhe met with the next year in St. James'-place, and, having purchaſed the leaſe of it, ſhe continued in it till her death. Her ſummers ſhe ſpent with the ducheſs of Portland at Bulſtrode; ſometimes, however, making excurſions to her relations, in Warwickſhire and Staffordſhire, or to others of thoſe many friends who were happy to enjoy her ſociety. But theſe excurſions were neither frequent nor long; and in her latter years ſhe almoſt wholly declined them. In the winter, ſcarcely a day paſſed in which the ducheſs of Portland, unleſs confined by illneſs, did not paſs ſome time with Mrs. Delany, at James'-place. The moſt uſual time of her grace's viſit was in an evening, from ſeven o'clock till ten; at which time there was often an aſſemblage of perſons of the firſt diſtinction for rank, abilities, and character. It is apparent, from this account, that Mrs. Delany never lived with the ducheſs of Portland as a companion (taking that word in the ſignification according to which it is frequently applied) but as an independent friend; for ſhe was poſſeſſed of more than ſix hundred pounds a year. What drew them ſo cloſely together was the moſt perfect friendſhip, founded on long acquaintance, ſimilar virtues, and congenial purſuits. Upon the death of the ducheſs dowager of Portland, the king, who had frequently ſeen and honoured Mrs. Delany with his notice at Bulſtrode, was graciouſly pleaſed to aſſign to her, for her ſummer reſidence, the uſe of a houſe completely furniſhed, in St. Alban's-ſtreet, Windſor, adjoining to the entrance of the caſtle: and, that the having of two houſes on her hands might not produce any inconvenience with regard to the expence of her living, his majeſty, as a farther mark of his royal favour, conferred upon her a penſion of three hundred pounds a year. The manner in which this penſion was paid added to the gracefulneſs of this gift. To prevent the cuſtomary deductions, the queen herſelf, in the kindeſt, moſt condeſcending, and moſt conſiderate manner, brought, every half year, the bank notes in her pocket. This, however, was not, as by many has been imagined, an eleemoſynary appointment. Mrs. Delany did not ſtand in need of it in that view; and, if her liberal and moderate ſpirit had permitted her to wiſh for an enlargement of her income, ſhe had near relations, whoſe circumſtances enabled them, and whoſe ſincere affection would

would have diſpoſed them to add to it, with the utmoſt pleaſure. The munificence of the king proceeded from the high eſteem which their majeſties entertained of her character, and from their deſire to have near them a lady of ſuch uncommon merit and endowments. Accordingly, they took much pleaſure in converſing with her, and ſometimes would call upon her more than once in the ſame day. On the 15th of April 1788, after a ſhort indiſpoſition, ſhe departed this life, at her houſe, in St. James'-place, having nearly completed the eighty-eighth year of her age.

The circumſtance that has principally entitled Mrs. Delany to an article in the preſent work, is her ſkill in painting, and in other ingenious arts, one of which was entirely her own. With reſpect to painting, ſhe was late in her application to it. She did not learn to draw till ſhe was more than thirty years of age, when ſhe put herſelf under the inſtruction of Goupy, a faſhionable maſter of that time, and much employed by Frederick prince of Wales. To oil-painting ſhe did not take till ſhe was paſt forty. So ſtrong was her paſſion for this art, that ſhe has frequently been known to employ herſelf in it, day after day, from ſix o'clock in the morning till dinner-time, allowing only a ſhort interval for breakfaſt. She was principally a copyiſt, but a very fine one. The only conſiderable original work of hers in oil was the raiſing of Lazarus, which is now in the poſſeſſion of her noble, kind, and much-valued friend, lady Bute. The hint of the compoſition was taken from a well known print of Rembrandt's. It is underſtood, that ſir Joſhua Reynolds was much pleaſed with this picture of Mrs. Delany's. The number of pictures painted by her, conſidering how late it was in life before ſhe applied to the art, was very great. Her own houſe was full of them; and others of them are among the chief ornaments of Calſwich, Welſbourn, and Ilam, the reſpective reſidences of her nephews, Mr. Granville and Mr. Dewes, and of her niece, Mrs. Port.

Mrs. Delany, among her other accompliſhments, excelled in embroidery and ſhell-work; and, in the courſe of her life, produced many elegant ſpecimens of her ſkill in theſe reſpects. But what is more remarkable with regard to her is, that, at the age of ſeventy-four, ſhe invented a new and beautiful mode of exerciſing her ingenuity. This was by the conſtruction of a Flora, of a moſt ſingular kind, formed by applying coloured papers together, and which might not improperly be called a ſpecies of Moſaic work. Being perfectly miſtreſs of her ſciſſars, the plant or flower which ſhe purpoſed to imitate ſhe cut out; that is, ſhe cut out its various leaves and parts in ſuch coloured Chineſe paper as ſuited her ſubject; and as ſhe could not always meet with a colour to correſpond with the one ſhe wanted, ſhe then dyed her own paper to anſwer her wiſhes. She uſed a black ground, as beſt calculated to throw out her flower; and not the leaſt aſtoniſhing part of her art was, that though ſhe never employed her pencil to trace out the form or ſhape of her plant, yet, when ſhe applied all the pieces which compoſed it, it hung ſo looſely and gracefully, that every one was perſuaded that it muſt previouſly have been drawn out, and repeatedly corrected, by a moſt judicious hand, before it could have attained the eaſe and air of truth which, without any impeachment of the honour of this accompliſhed lady, might juſtly be called a forgery of Nature's works. The effect was ſuperior to what painting could have produced; and ſo impoſing was her art, that ſhe would ſometimes put a real leaf of a plant by the ſide of one of her own creation, which the eye could not detect, even when ſhe herſelf pointed it out. Mrs. Delany continued in the proſecution of her deſign till the eighty-third year of her age, when the dimneſs of her ſight

ſight obliged her to lay it aſide. However, by her unwearied perſeverance, ſhe became authoreſs of far the completeſt Flora that ever was executed by the ſame hand. The number of plants finiſhed by her amounted to nine hundred and eighty.

This invaluable Flora was bequeathed by her to her nephew Court Dewes, eſq. and is now in his poſſeſſion. The liberality of Mrs. Delany's mind rendered her at all times ready to communicate her art. She frequently purſued her work in company; was deſirous of ſhewing to her friends how eaſy it was to execute; and was often heard to lament, that ſo few would attempt it. It required, however, two eſſential requiſites to undertake it with ſucceſs; great patience, and great knowledge in botanical drawing.

When Mrs. Delany had entered into the eighteth year of her age, ſhe preſixed to the firſt volume of her Flora the following lines, having never written, ſo far as is known, any verſes before.

Hail to the happy hour, when Fancy led
My penſive mind the flowery path to tread,
And gave me emulation to preſume
With timid art to trace fair Nature's bloom;
To view with awe the great creative power
That ſhines conſeſt in the minuteſt flower;
With wonder to purſue the glorious line,
And gratefully adore the Hand divine.

Theſe lines are ſucceeded by what follows, in proſe.

'This paper Moſaic work was begun in the ſeventy-fourth year of my age (which I at firſt only meant as an imitation of an Hortus ſiccus) and as an employment and amuſement to ſupply the loſs of thoſe that had formerly been delightful to me, but had loſt their power of pleaſing; being deprived of that friend whoſe partial approbation was my pride, and had ſtamped a value on them. Though the effect of this work was more than I expected, I thought that a whim of my own fancy might fondly beguile my judgment to think better of it than it deſerved; and I ſhould have dropped the attempt as vain, had not the ducheſs dowager of Portland looked on it with favourable eyes. Her approbation was ſuch a ſanction to my undertaking, as made it appear of conſequence, and gave me courage to go on with confidence. To her I owe more than I dare expreſs; but my heart will ever feel, with the utmoſt gratitude and tendereſt affection, the honour and delight I have enjoyed in her moſt generous, ſteady, and delicate friendſhip, for above forty years.

MARY DELANY.

The ſame deſires, the ſame ingenious arts,
Delighted both.—We owned and bleſs'd that power
That join'd at once our ſtudies and our hearts.

MASON, Elegy III.

'Bulſtrode, 5th July 1779.'

Here we cannot forbear inſerting a pleaſing anecdote relating to this ſubject. Mrs. Delany, while in Ireland, was preſented with a citron, the ſeeds of which ſhe planted, and reared to a tree, which, at the time of her leaving that kingdom, was in its perfection. When ſhe was became enamoured of her new work, ſhe often wiſhed to perpetuate the tree ſhe had left behind her; and intimating ſuch wiſh to the ducheſs dowager of Portland, her noble friend, with that benevolence which diſtinguiſhed her character, contrived to get the tree ſent over to Bulſtrode. As ſoon as it was recovered from the accidents of ſo long a journey, it was placed in the gallery; and on Mrs. Delany's being ſtruck with the beauty of the plant, ſhe was informed by her grace, that it was the identical tree ſhe had often been deſirous of obtaining. Mr. Keate happened to pay a viſit at Bulſtrode juſt as Mrs. Delany had finiſhed the portrait of a branch of her favourite citron tree; and hearing the hiſtory of it, a deſire was excited in him of commemorating an event, which gave him an opportunity of recording the abilities

abilities of Mrs. Delany, and the diſcerning and attentive friendſhip of the ducheſs dowager of Portland. This he accordingly did, in an elegant copy of verſes, entitled, 'A Petition from Mrs. Delany's Citron Tree to her Grace the Ducheſs Dowager of Portland:' the concluding part of which, as more immediately regarding our preſent ſubject, we ſhall inſert, for the gratification of our readers.

From citron-groves on diſtant ſhores,
Round which the wide Atlantic roars,
Torn from my parent tree, I came
A little ſeed conſign'd to fame;
Conſign'd to fame—for ſome kind ſtar,
When from my home I'd wander'd far,
At laſt on fair Hibernia's ſand
Led me to good Delany's hand;
Delany's hand, whoſe touch can give
New grace and bloom,—ſhe bade me live.
I rooted, nor wiſh'd more to ſtir;
And who would not, to live with her?
Rear'd by her ſmiles, I daily grew,
And ſpread my beauty to her view;
But plants, like men, it is allow'd,
Have all their ſun-ſhine, and their cloud!
My friendly guardian call'd away,
On Britain's coaſt to fix her ſtay,
My cheering ſun-ſhine loſt! no more
My leaves their wonted verdure wore,
No more with joy my bloſſoms ſpread,
Sorrowing I droop'd, and hung my head,
Till gracious Portland deign'd to be
Proteſtreſs of my miſery;
Bade me once more the ocean croſs,
My ſpirits rais'd, retriev'd my loſs;
And, ever be her name ador'd,
My miſtreſs to my ſight reſtor'd.
While now I glow with wonted charms,
And gratitude each fibre warms,
More favour'd ſure no plant can ſhine!
But a ſtill happier lot is mine!
For lo! your faithful friend for me
Prepares a glorious deſtiny;
She makes me on her table riſe,
And notes me with enquiring eyes,
My texture marks, my form ſurveys,
And views me with parental gaze,
Then with her artful ſciſſars traces
My ſhape, my colour, and my graces,
Unlike what poets give the fates,
For theirs deſtroy, but her's creates!
I ſee another ſelf—and ſtart,
Shudd'ring with wonder at her art.
'Tis done—and ſhe hath ſeal'd my doom,
And fix'd me in eternal bloom.
So Bacchus once, as bards relate,
Completed Ariadne's fate,
And, as ſhort life to beauty's giv'n,
Fix'd her a ſtarry crown in Heav'n;
Surrounded with a radiant blaze,
For future worlds t' admire, and gaze.—
Then, noble lady, may I ſue,
And one requeſt prefer to you?
While my own fame I raptur'd trace,
I feel a wiſh for all my race.
O could my ſiſter plants, and flowers,
That ſpring beneath your beauteous bow'rs,
Before the good Delany ſtand,
And ſhare the magic of her hand!
She'd give to others, as to me,
A kind of Immortality!

The ſame ingenious writer has embraced another opportunity of celebrating the merit of the lady we are treating of, in the following lines, containing 'Advice to a little Girl, the Author's Daughter, on her being honoured with ſome Inſtruction by Mrs. Delany in cutting out Paper.'

With that benevolence which condeſcends
To glide its knowledge to the youthful heart,
O'er-thee, my child, the good Delany bends,
Directs thy ſciſſars, and reveals her art.

Ah! ſeize the happy moment!—She can ſhew
The mazy path myſterious Nature treads;
Can ſteal her varied grace, her varied glow,
And all the changeful beauties that ſhe ſpreads.

Then mark thy kind inſtructreſs, watch her hand,
Her judgment, her inſpiring touch attain;
Thy ſciſſars, make like her's, a magic wand!—
Tho' much I fear thy efforts will be vain.

Failing in this, my child, forbear the ſtrife;
Another path to fame by her is ſhown;
Try by the pattern of her honour'd life,
With equal virtue to cut out thine own *.

In

* Theſe are not the only poetical compliments which Mr. Keate has paid to Mrs. Delany; as will appear, in a very agreeable manner, if he ſhould be induced to oblige the world by the publication of a farther Collection of Poems.

Mr.

In 1782, Mrs. Delany loſt her ſight, on which occaſion ſhe wrote the following lines:

The time is come, I can no more
The vegetable world explore;
No more with rapture cull each flower
That paints the mead, or twines the bower;
No more with admiration ſee
Its beauteous form and ſymmetry;
No more attempt, with hope elate,
Its lovely hues to imitate.
Farewell to all thoſe friendly powers
That bleſt my ſolitary hours;
Alas, farewell! but ſhall I mourn
As one who is of hope forlorn?
Ah, no! my mind with rapture feels
The promiſe which thy word reveals.
Come, Holy Spirit! on thy wing
Thy ſacred conſolations bring;
Teach me to contemplate that grace
Which hath ſo long ſuſtained my race;
Which various bleſſings ſtill beſtows,
And pours in balm to all my woes.
O! ſanctify the pointed dart
That at this moment rends my heart;
Teach me, ſubmiſſive, to reſign,
When ſummoned by thy will divine.

St. James'-place 1782.

Theſe poetical effuſions, which diſplay ſo excellent a diſpoſition, naturally lead us to conclude this article with an account of Mrs. Delany's private character, which we are happy in being enabled to give in the words of her friend Mr. Keate. 'She had every virtue that could adorn the human heart, with a mind ſo pure, and ſo uncontaminated by the world, that it was matter of aſtoniſhment how ſhe could have lived in its more ſplendid ſcenes without being tainted with one ſingle atom of its folly or indiſcretion. The ſtrength of her underſtanding received, in the fulleſt degree, *its poliſh*, but *its weakneſs* never reached her. Her life was conducted by the ſentiments of true piety; her way of thinking, on every occaſion, was upright and juſt; her converſation was lively, pleaſant, and inſtructive. She was warm, delicate, and ſincere in her friendſhips; full of philanthropy and benevolence, and loved and reſpected by every perſon who had the happineſs to know her. That ſun-ſhine and ſerenity of mind which the good can only enjoy, and which had thrown ſo much attraction on her life, remained without a ſhadow to the laſt; not leſs bright in its ſetting, than in its meridian luſtre. That form which in youth had claimed admiration, in age challenged reſpect. It preſented a noble ruin, become venerable by the decay of time. Her faculties remained unimpaired to the laſt; and ſhe quitted this mortal ſtate to receive in a better world the crown of a well-ſpent life.'

Mrs. Delany was buried in a vault belonging to St. James' church; and, on one of its columns, a ſtone is erected to her memory, with an inſcription, which, after reciting her name, deſcent, marriages, age, &c. concludes as follows: 'She was a lady of ſingular ingenuity and politeneſs, and of unaffected piety. Theſe qualities had endeared her through life to many noble and excellent perſons, and made the cloſe of it illuſtrious, by procuring for her many ſignal marks of grace and favour from their majeſties.'

Mr. Walpole, in the later editions of his 'Anecdotes of Painting in England,' ſpeaking of a particular picture, which was in the poſſeſſion of the Ducheſs Dowager of Portland, expreſſes himſelf in a note as follows: 'This portrait the Ducheſs, at her death, bequeathed to her friend, the widow of Dr. Delany, and correſpondent of Dr. Swift: a lady of excellent ſenſe and taſte, a paintreſs in oil, who, at the age of ſeventy-five, invented the art of Paper Moſaic, with which material, coloured, ſhe, in eight years, executed within twenty of a thouſand various flowers and flowering ſhrubs, with a preciſion and truth unparalleled.'

On the COMPARATIVE MERIT *of* OCCUPATIONS.

AMONG the ſilly diſputes which frequently diſturb the peace of company, and divert converſation from its pleaſing track, I know of none more ſilly than thoſe, which are occaſioned by people pretending to arrange the comparative dignity of their callings or profeſſions. What renders this the more unprofitable is, that whether a man ſhall be of this trade or of that, in nine caſes out of ten depends upon chance; or, if it is upon *choice*, it is well known that in chooſing a trade, we have no opportunity of diſcovering any great degree of ſagacity. Boys prefer a trade, they know not why; and after they are fairly entered upon it, neceſſity obliges them to remain in it. Nor do I think that we ſhould gain much by calling in the experience of the parent; for it is ten to one but he may chooſe a calling or profeſſion which, it ſhall afterward appear, his boy either does not like, or is not fit for. The advice of a parent is certainly not to be neglected; but, at the ſame time, it ſhould not be given in the ſhape of a command. There are caſes where boys have been led by a ſecret impulſe to that particular trade or profeſſion, which preciſely ſuits their abilities as well as inclination; and, indeed, in moſt caſes, a ſtrong inclination or propenſity is no bad ſymptom of future proficiency. If abilities are moderate, perſeverance will do wonders.

But in more advanced life, when men are irrevocably fixed in any calling, to diſpute about its ſuperiority over every other, is at leaſt fooliſh, and often creates troubleſome diſagreements. Beſides, after a plan has been carried into execution, it is not the proper time to debate on its merit or utility; and few men are ſo diſintereſted, or ſo liberal, as to be able to ſpeak impartially on their own purſuit. And as debates of this kind tend to no good purpoſe, ſince there can be no deciſion which will alter matters, they generally lead to falſe notions of propriety.

Horace, in an admirable ſtrain of irony, has expoſed the folly of diſcontentment with our own ſituation. 'How comes it,' ſays he, 'that no man lives contentedly in that ſituation, into which either choice or chance has thrown him, but is ever praiſing thoſe who follow other purſuits? The old, weatherbeaten, and lame ſoldier ſays, what happy dogs theſe merchants are! The merchant, in the midſt of a ſhipwreck, or after an account has been brought of ſuch a misfortune, wiſhes he had been a ſoldier; for in that caſe, ſays he, the engagement commences, and in one moment comes a glorious death, or joyful victory. The lawyer praiſes the occupation of the farmer, when his clients are knocking him up at an early hour of the morning; and the farmer, in his viſit to the city, declares that the only happy people are thoſe who live in cities.—But, continues our ſatiriſt, if any god ſhould ſay, come, gentlemen, you ſhall have your heart's deſire; you, Mr. Soldier, ſhall be a merchant, and you, Mr. Merchant, a ſoldier; you, lawyer, ſhall be a farmer, and you, farmer, a lawyer. Go your ways in your new ſituations.—But, adds Horace, they ſtand ſtill—not a man will move, now that he has it in his power to be happy.

The truth is, every one of theſe ſpoke againſt his real opinion; for the chief failing is of the oppoſite nature, entertaining too high an opinion of our own purſuits and undervaluing thoſe of others: a man who rails at his own trade flies off from that argument the moment any one joins him; knowing that if his trade be a bad one, he cannot leave it, and his pride will not allow him to liſten to its being abuſed.

In thoſe petty diſputes which we

are ſometimes condemned to hear, reſpecting the comparative excellence of trades, we may eaſily diſcover that a falſe eſtimate of what is really meritorious, guides the whole debate. The vulgar idea is that that trade, in which the greateſt number of rich men are to be found, is the higheſt on the ſcale of merit, as if riches merely were the teſt of merit, and nothing good or dignified could be found in humble competency. Some are for placing the *banker* at the head of all other trades; he is one who ſeems to become rich merely by ſhifting and moving about certain ſums of money; he appears to require very little manual labour, and not much mental. Others, with more propriety, prefer the merchant, who, though he may require more mechaniſm in his operations, yet is a genuine benefactor to his country, and is not more obliged to the public than the public are to him.

There are ſeveral rules that may be laid down to enable us to judge, which is the moſt meritorious calling, or profeſſion. It is, I hope, acknowledged, that although luxury may be of ſome benefit to a nation, by giving employment to many hands, yet a very ſmall proportion only of a nation can be luxurious, or poſſeſs, or enjoy thoſe things which we conſider as luxuries. It will, therefore, I alſo hope, be acknowledged, that the neceſſaries of life are thoſe which contribute moſt to the maintenance and well being of a nation; and that he who is employed in furniſhing thoſe in the cheapeſt and beſt manner, is the moſt uſeful member of ſociety. Suppoſe then we were to lay it down as a rule, that every trade or profeſſion is to be judged by its *uſefulneſs*. This, I preſume, is not an unfair mode of determining the queſtion; for no perſon can deny that what is uſeful, and is at all times wanted, is to be preferred to what is luxurious and may at all times be diſpenſed with.

But ſuch is the preſent ſtate of things in the world, that it is very difficult to ſay what are uſeful and what are ſuperfluous. We become habituated to certain things ſo long, that habit becomes a ſecond nature, and we know not how to diſpenſe with them, nor is it poſſible for us not to think that they are abſolutely neceſſary. If a man of good fortune were determined to diſmiſs, or ſell off every article about him for which he had no neceſſity, he would, in looking over his houſe be very much at a loſs to ſay what articles he could do without, and what he muſt retain. He would perhaps be leſs puzzled in retrenching from his table; but ſtill he would be ſtrongly biaſſed in favour of certain things, from that force of habit which has given them, in his eyes, a kind of uſefulneſs.

In determining what are luxuries, and what are neceſſaries, we are ſometimes referred to the days of our forefathers, or to a period called the golden age, when men lived agreeably to the ſimple dictates of nature. But, alas! we can find no authentic accounts of ſuch an age; we know not what are the ſimple dictates of nature; and of our forefathers, if we did know much, we ſhould alſo know that they too had forefathers, whoſe actions have been ſo many ages buried in oblivion, that they can no longer ſerve as examples. As well may we force open the gates of the muſeum, and paſs the coins of Julius Ceſar, or Otho, as current, and more valuable than our own. Certain it is, that our anceſtors were content with fewer things than we are; but that contentment was no great virtue, for they enjoyed all they had, and they deſired more; which is preciſely our caſe. If we are, therefore, to go back in queſt of an inventory of neceſſaries, we ought to be told in what age of the world it is to be found. We may ſuppoſe that there did exiſt a middle period, when men lived in that moderate ſtyle of expence, and pleaſure, which excludes all ſuperfluities; but as we know not where to find it, we are in danger of paſſing this line,

and by going ſtill farther back, we ſhall come to the time when men lived naked in woods, hunted wild beaſts, and eat their priſoners. If we do get ſo far back as this, we may be pretty well ſatisfied that we have miſſed the object of our ſearch.

If then it is ſo difficult to determine what are luxuries, and what are neceſſaries, we ſhall find it equally difficult to apply our rule of utility to the various trades and occupations of mankind. Yet ſuch is the ſelf-love of man, that this difficulty never prevents him from having a higher opinion of his own occupation than he has of that of his neighbour. The *banker* ſays—'Why, a *merchant* is but a ſlavith kind of buſineſs, and depends ſo much on the fortune of the waves, on accidents, and twenty other things, that one wonders they get any thing by it; beſides, the name of merchant is an antidote in polite aſſemblies at the weſt end of the town.'—The merchant anſwers, by ſtating that *banker* is a fine ſounding name, the firſt ſyllable of which ſeems to confer a degree of honour and ſecurity; 'but, pooh! I remember when there were no bankers, but a few ſilverſmiths in Lombard-ſtreet, from whom all the preſent race are ſprung; and as to ſecurity, to be ſure there muſt be a great deal of ſecurity, when all depends on paper credit, and when the moſt ridiculous ſuſpicion inſtilled in the minds of the public is enough to knock them up; beſides, they ſhould not talk ſo familiarly of merchants, unleſs they chooſe to forget that they are, and ever muſt be, the humble ſervants of merchants.' This ſpirit of preferring our own occupation to that of every other perſon deſcends even to the loweſt claſſes of tradeſmen. Jonas Hanway tells us of a maſter chimney-ſweeper, who, inſtead of beating his apprentices when they behaved improperly, threatened to make them *taylors!*, a threat which always reduced them to obedience. And now that I have mentioned the trade of a taylor, I hope that fraternity will not be ſorry, if I expreſs my ſurpriſe at their having ſo long lain under the laſh of every ſatirical wit, or blockhead. This, upon the principle of *utility*, is very wonderful; for what deſcription of tradeſmen can be more uſeful? And if we conſider their influence on the world of faſhion, we are yet more ſurpriſed that they are not careſſed and honoured beyond moſt other artificers. Were it not for them, on a royal birth-day, we ſhould behold deformity inſtead of elegance, and darkneſs inſtead of brilliancy. Yet there are few men of other trades who do not conſider that of a taylor as being diſgraceful, as if it were a diſgrace to make a coat, and no diſgrace to wear it.

But to return to the *ſcale of utility*. Although from what I have remarked, it may be difficult to aſcertain the preciſe comparative points of utility, yet there are ſome things which we may decide upon with great certainty. We may, for inſtance, be very certain that the man who can build a houſe is a more honourable and more uſeful member of ſociety, than he who can only make a tart; that he who vends a cheap and wholeſome beverage is a far more reſpectable tradeſman, than he who ſells only noxious and intoxicating liquors, although the former may be called a humble brewer, and the latter may ſtyle himſelf a great diſtiller; and that he who cuts up our mutton and prepares it for our tables, will often be a neceſſary help to us and to our families, when the man who powders our hair may be diſpenſed with. We may alſo conclude, that the enterprifing manufacturer who gives bread to thouſands, is far more honourably and uſefully employed than the foreſtalling contractor who takes it from them. In theſe, and many other caſes, we may very certainly decide upon the idea of *utility*; but I am aware that very few will be inclined to ſubmit to the rule. The coachmaker, I am afraid, will not yield to the carpenter; the maſon will have but an indifferent opinion

of the bricklayer; and the ſilverſmith will look proudly on the hardware-man.

Nor, I fear, ſhall we find the learned profeſſions totally without their prejudices againſt one another. The *divine* regrets that there ſhould be ſo many lawyers; he is afraid, that although ſome of them may be honeſt, yet it is a very bad ſign when ſo many of them find employment. The *lawyer* wonders that the ſtate ſupports ſuch a lazy ſet of drones as the parſons; and thinks they would be much better employed at the plough than in the pulpit. Nor is the counſellor more merciful to his own profeſſion. He never conſiders the *attorney* but as a mechanic, while the attorney looks with ſome degree of contempt upon the engroſſing clerks. The *chamber counſel* is a far more honourable employment, than to be bawling at the Old Bailey to ſave a thief from the gallows; and the *chancery pleader* pities his brethren of the King's-bench and Common-pleas, who muſt cringe to the paſſions of twelve fools called jurymen, while *he* has only to addreſs the dignified and the learned.—The *phyſician* joins in the common topics of ridicule againſt divines and lawyers, but conſiders the apothecary as his ſervant; the apothecary has no very violent reſpect for the mere retail druggiſt, while the ſurgeon would not be either one or the other for the world.—Such are the effects of that vanity which inclines us to ſpeak better of our own trade or profeſſion than that of others; not perhaps that we always thinks ſo, but being too far advanced to recede, we muſt brave it out and keep up appearances.

Next to utility, which is certainly the beſt teſt of the merit or honour of a trade, it may perhaps be thought, that thoſe trades which ariſe from indolence, or ignorance, are to be conſidered as inferior to others. In the courſe of that immenſe extenſion of trade which this country boaſts of, ſome branches have ſprung up merely from indolence and ignorance in others. A man, for example, wants to do buſineſs at the bank, or the cuſtom houſe, and he knows not how to go about it; he employs, therefore, one who is called a broker, or agent. This man for a ſmall reward tranſacts the whole, without giving the other any trouble. Such intermediate men may be thought to rank low; and it is a fact, that in a certain aſſembly of citizens, there is a ſtanding rule that no broker ſhall be admitted, whatever his opulence or conſequence may be. But it is not fair to conſider brokers and agents in this light; let us revert to our rule of utility, and we ſhall have a better opinion of them; ſurely we cannot think meanly of him who prevents the conſequences of indolence, and averts the miſtakes of ignorance. No one man can execute every branch of a mercantile concern, and he who executes what another cannot do, may elbow him with great confidence.

Another rule which has been laid down is founded upon very falſe principles. It is ſaid that the more *independent* a man's trade is of the common caſualties of human affairs, it is the more honourable and the more to be preferred. To ſpeak much of the independence of trade is to ſpeak foolihly; there can be no independence in that which is liable to ſo many tranſitions. Some few there are which may be ſaid to be more independent than others; a merchant may ſurely be ſaid to be a more independent character, than a man who deals only in one article which may fail to be productive, or which the public may chooſe to do without. A grocer is a more independent man than a ſilk-mercer; for people will contrive to buy tea and ſugar, when they cannot afford ſilks and ſatins. The humbleſt mechanic is more independent than a lottery-office-keeper; for the latter depends entirely on the caprice or neceſſities of a miniſter of ſtate, whether his profeſſion ſhall be continued another year, or be annihilated for ever. In times of public calamity we ſoon dif-

diſcover who are the moſt independent, for then the caterers to luxury muſt be idle, while they who, by dealing in neceſſaries, are always in ſome degree wanted, make a ſhift to weather the ſtorm, and wait with contentment the return of better times. But the dependence of one trade upon another is ſo great, they are ſo cloſely intwined, and the whole fabric may ſo eaſily give way by the failure of an apparently inſignificant part, that no man, upon proper principles, can ever conſider himſelf as independent. It would be ſtrange if independence, that is, permanent ſecurity, were given to trade, which is denied to all other human affairs. The riſe and declenſion of great houſes and extenſive concerns point out this very ſtrikingly.

There are not many occupations which can be ſaid to be wholly uſeleſs. Men may want few things as individuals, but as members of ſociety they require more. The great merit, therefore, of any trade, will not be that which vanity affixes to it, but that which ariſes from its being faithfully and honeſtly purſued; and the quantum of happineſs each man enjoys will reconcile him to his ſituation, though it may not appear ſo very great in the eyes of the world. The poor and the rich are ſo connected together, that it is great folly for them to think their intereſts are ſeparate: what can the poor mechanic do, without the rich merchant who is to pay him, and what can the rich merchant do to diſtinguiſh himſelf from the reſt of the world without the aſſiſtance of the poor?

'He,' ſays Dr. Johnſon, 'that purſues fame with juſt claims, truſts his happineſs to the winds; but he that endeavours after it by falſe merit, has to fear, not only the violence of the ſtorm, but the leaks of his veſſel. Though he ſhould happen to keep above water for a time, by the help of a ſoft breeze, and a calm ſea, at the firſt guſt he muſt inevitably founder, with this melancholy reflection, that, if he would have been content with his natural ſtation, he might have eſcaped his calamity. Affectation may poſſibly ſucceed for a time, and a man may, by great attention, perſuade others, that he really has the qualities which he preſumes to boaſt: but the hour will come when he ſhould exert them, and then whatever he enjoyed in praiſe, he muſt ſuffer in reproach. Applauſe and admiration are by no means to be counted among the neceſſaries of life, and therefore any indirect arts to obtain them have very little claim to pardon or compaſſion. There is ſcarcely any man without ſome valuable or improveable qualities, by which he might always ſecure himſelf from contempt. And perhaps exemption from ignominy is the moſt eligible reputation, as freedom from pain is, among ſome philoſophers, the definition of happineſs.'

C.

On the TENDENCY *of* NOVEL-READING.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

I Concluded my laſt letter with obſerving, that the higheſt poſſible reward, held out to the heroes of novels, being the poſſeſſion of a fine fortune, a fine woman, and a fine eſtate, the votaries of virtue would in general be egregiouſly diſappointed, if the occurrences of real life at all reſembled thoſe which we find in novels, and which are pretendedly copied from nature. What part of nature's law or conſtitution it is, that matrimony ſhould be the ſupreme reward of a virtuous life, we have yet to diſcover.

The heroine, as I obſerved in one of my former letters, is one who muſt go through the fiery ordeal of many miſ-

misfortunes and disappointments, all which are intended to purify her from the dross of celibacy, and prepare her for that happier state, which is to be the reward of all her fortitude, patience, and chastity: I mean, a marriage with the man of her affections. We often read, for example, of a young woman, at first an orphan, or the child of nobody, left destitute of money and friends, 'alone in the universe,' as an author expresses it, and without a protector. Seducers come around her, whom she repels with heroic firmness, and escapes from them either by flight, or by fine speeches. She has a taste of every calamity that can befall a young lady in such circumstances: she is turned out of doors; she is pursued; she flies; the thunder rolls (for it seems agreed that a heroine must not fly in fine weather) the lightening flashes, the rain descends, the 'stars hide their fires;' and she is in the midst of a lonely forest, with, perhaps, only a faithful dog, or a maid servant. And now, when destruction is impending, when the earth gapes to receive her, heaven has forsaken her, and all human help is apparently fled, who should come to her relief, but the dear man we have read of in all the preceding volumes! He has been searching all over the kingdom in vain; in vain has he enquired in all frequented paths, when now his destiny leads him to this very spot. That the surprise of such a meeting should be great, we are ready to believe, for even in reading, it is very surprising, and what must it not be in reality? However, the consequences of this very unexpected meeting are a tragic and refined lunacy on the one side, and fits on the other, which subside into showers of tears, flowers of rhetoric, commencing in broken accents, and ending in long narratives, from which we learn, that although the parties have always had the strongest possible desire to meet, it happened, oddly enough, that neither of them pursued the proper path to get at the other. This very often happens in real life, when we seek a thing in every place but that in which it is to be found.

After so many calamities and such a meeting, are we not to hope that the parties are now at the end of all their labour and toil? In real life we might *suppose* this to be the case; but a thorough-bred novelist, a professor of the science of fiction, will not stop here; for, just as the lady has been helped (very faint) upon the gentleman's horse, and the gentleman, the maidservant, and the dog, have agreed to walk to the next house, wherever that shall be, a banditti of robbers attack them, bind the gentleman hand and foot to the stump of an old oak tree, where they leave him to those soliloquies, which the author only hears, and gallop away with the lady and her attendant. Here is fresh cause for sorrow, and for pathetic description: or perhaps, to give a touch of the horrible,

'whose lightest word
Would harrow up the soul, freeze the young blood,
Make the two eyes, like stars, start from their spheres,
The knotty and combined locks to part.'

Perhaps, I say, the travellers discover a light in the forest, approach to it, find that it belongs to a house, are hospitably received, but soon discover that this is a den of thieves, who murder every person they rob. Here is fresh occasion for fortitude, and the escape is altogether so miraculous that the author must be far more clever than ordinary if he does not render it perfectly ridiculous. When, however, the parties have escaped these and a thousand similar dangers, in which they have displayed wisdom, bravery, virtue, chastity, benevolence, and every other good quality, they at length arrive at the summit of human happiness, because the only reward of all their sufferings, *matrimony*; to which are usually added, an unincumbered estate, and a very elegant mansion, park, and pleasure

ſure grounds. And here the author and the reader part; the latter, if he learns any thing, fully perſuaded, that the only true uſe and value of the ſeveral virtues are their being eminently uſeful in obtaining the woman of his affections.

As ninety-nine out of a hundred novels end at matrimony, it is but natural to ſuppoſe that all the reſt of human life is a blank, which affords no ſcope for invention, no ſubject for copying. And perhaps, in ſome reſpect, this may be juſt, and at the ſame time a common conſequence of novel reading. When the whole duty of man is compriſed in the ſcience of intrigue, and when he who has attained the object of his purſuit, has attained all he ever read of human happineſs, we ought not to wonder if the dull uniformity of a life which is not chequered with hair-breadth eſcapes, and wonderful revolutions, ſhould have few charms. Indeed, the truth is, that thoſe young people who have been ſo unfortunately infatuated by a taſte for reading novels as to fancy that they contain natural, or even probable deſcriptions of human life, have generally been miſerably diſappointed; and it may be averred, as equally true, that although novels ſeem to recommend the exerciſe of the benevolent virtues, they have ſeldom or ever made converts to them. Charity, for example, is generally introduced in ſome one or more epiſodes. A young lady relieves a diſtreſſed object in a manner the moſt faſcinating and kind: and we are delighted with the deſcription. But if we look a little farther into the ſtory, we find that the diſtreſſed perſon was —not a wretch, poor, mean, ignorant, and ſqualid, ſuch as thoſe who in real life ſupplicate charity, and ſupplicate ſo often in vain. No—ſhe was a young creature, who appeared to be handſome; ſhe had fine blue eyes, though diſfigured with weeping; beautiful auburn hair, though diſhevelled by the wind, or the rain, or the diſuſe of a comb: ſhe addreſſes her benefactreſs in an elegant ſpeech, although at firſt ſhe is not able to ſpeak; and after being relieved, ſhe is again ſtruck dumb. She is invited to the manſion, turns out to be the daughter of an officer, who died a lieutenant of marines, after thirty years ſervice; ſhe has a cultivated mind, a poliſhed education; ſomething there is above the common in her manner, and, to complete all the perfections of this accompliſhed beggar, her name is Louiſa, Matilda, Roſetta, or Caroline. After this, ſhe is removed to the houſe as a companion, turns out to be remarkably handſome indeed; an uncle arrives from abroad, whom ſhe never heard of before, with an immenſe fortune; and that ſhe, too, may have the reward of her virtues, the heroine's brother juſt come from his travels, or from the camp, or from the univerſity, tries to debauch her, is conquered by her virtues, and marries her.

In almoſt every inſtance of the exerciſe of benevolence and charity in novels, we meet with ſuch circumſtances of refinement, of elegance, and of art, as totally deſtroy the idea of diſintereſted charity. In real life, we know that ſuch objects occur ſo rarely, that ſhe who keeps her benevolence for them only, is in no danger of ſuffering by prodigality. In fact, that artificial benevolence, or affected ſenſibility has few ſubjects to exerciſe itſelf upon, unleſs in fictitious life. Real miſery is very ſeldom (is it ever?) accompanied by circumſtances of pomp and refinement. Such may occur on the ſtage, where,

'The tragic muſe ſublime delights to ſhow,
Princes diſtreſt, and ſcenes of *royal* woe.'

But in a really diſtreſſed object, we find nothing to make a ſtory of. The afflictions of the 'ſolitary cottage, the dying parent, and the weeping orphan,' poſſeſs no embelliſhments, no ſunſhine gleaming through the clouds, no elegance peeping through rags, no

no education ſtriving to paſs for ſimple ignorance. Real diſtreſs is too much occupied in itſelf to aſſume airs of majeſty; torture will admit of no elegant diſplay of the limbs, no graceful bow of the head, or waving of the hand; nor will it afford to the man of *modern ſenſibility* an opportunity to make an oſtentatious parade. The truly charitable relieve diſtreſs for its own ſake, and will not paſs coolly by the afflicted in whatever ſituation of meanneſs they may be found.

It would require no great trouble to point out the falſe morality which in many other inſtances prevails in modern novels, and which greatly tends to corrupt the heart, by miſinforming the head. The imagination and the underſtanding are more intimately connected than the dealers in fiction would have us believe, or perhaps they themſelves know. In morals, and in the whole conduct of human life, it is of the utmoſt importance to acquire proper ideas of the ſeveral virtues and vices. We cannot otherwiſe know where the one ends and the other begins.

We ſhall be the leſs ſurpriſed at the *kind* of morality which prevails in works, profeſſedly intended to mend the heart and guide the conduct, if we reflect that of late years, the philoſophy (if I may term it ſo) of novels has been borrowed from the French, whoſe philoſophers (I ſtill muſt uſe the phraſe) have always endeavoured to eſtabliſh a ſyſtem of moral conduct, independent of religion. I obſerved, toward the cloſe of my laſt letter (page 165) that it may be thought I am too faſtidious in mentioning religion, as if it were a proper ſubject for novels. In anſwer to this, I beg leave to offer two conſiderations. I do not, in the firſt place, think that religion is ſo improper for novels, as moſt novels are to be the vehicle of religion. In Richardſon's novels, for inſtance, there is a fine vein of rational piety, connected at the ſame time with the beſt faſcinations of novel writing. Fielding, a more looſe, but a more lively writer, has not loſt ſight of this likewiſe. But I own I ſhould be ſorry to ſee it introduced into our more modern novels, into the trafh which iſſues daily from the profeſſed manufactories of Leadenhall and Bond-ſtreets, becauſe it would be dangerous to truſt thoſe authors with religion who know ſo little of common morality, and leſs of the human heart than of either. This argument, therefore, I ſhall wave, as far as it may be conſtrued into a recommendation to thoſe gentlemen to mix religion with their novels.

But, in the ſecond place, I have a conſideration to offer to parents and guardians which I hope will not be without its effect. It is too notorious that a religious education is on the wane with thoſe who profeſs to be genteel people, and that the few inſtructions picked up at boarding ſchools, are generally left there, or ſoon obliterated. Now, as thoſe parents chooſe, for reaſons beſt known to themſelves, to pay no attention to religion in the farther training up of their children, I would have them ſeriouſly conſider whether it would not be better to put into their hands ſuch books as connect religion and morality, from which they may gain ſomething without troubling their parents, than to indulge them with the peruſal of every book called a novel, in which they find an artificial and diſtorted morality, from which they imbibe a falſe notion of life, and *to which* we have poſitive proofs, the ruin of many a young perſon may be aſcribed without any doubt or breach of charity.

I am, ſir,
Your's, &c.
LUCIUS.

Re-

REMARKS *on ſome of* ROCHEFOUCAULT'S MAXIMS.

'OFTEN ſhould we be aſhamed of our beſt actions, were the world to witneſs the motives which produce them.' As the author limits this maxim by the word *often*, it will be impoſſible to deny it. There are few men who may not recollect that ſome of their beſt actions did not ariſe from the *pureſt* motives; at the ſame time, it muſt be confeſſed, that as we can ſee the action always, and the motive ſeldom, if ever, we ought to employ much caution in aſcribing actions to particular motives.

'Nothing is *leſs ſincere* than our manner of aſking or of giving advice. He who aſks advice, and ſeems to have a reſpectful deference for the opinion of his friend, aims only at getting his own approved, and making that friend reſponſible for his conduct. On the other hand, he who gives advice, repays the confidence ſuppoſed to be placed in him by a ſeemingly diſintereſted zeal, while he ſeldom means more than his own intereſt or reputation.' This is one of the harſheſt of Rochefoucault's maxims, and we truſt not founded on truth or experience. There are certainly many things *leſs ſincere* than our manner of aſking or of giving advice. He who gives advice, cannot be ſuppoſed to mean either his intereſt or his reputation; for he either runs the riſk of having his advice neglected for that of ſome other perſon, or if it be taken, and be ſucceſsful, he who receives it is very apt to aſcribe all the merit to himſelf.

'Whatever we may pretend, ſelf-intereſt and vanity are the uſual ſources of our afflictions.' Diſeaſe and poverty ſurely have no connexion with ſelf-intereſt and vanity, which may *embitter* affliction, but of themſelves cannot create any thing which deſerves the name, or deſerves to be pitied.

'In affliction there are ſeveral kinds of hypocriſy.' This is a vague aſſertion. In real affliction, there can be none, and if he means the affectation of affliction, that is but another word for hypocriſy.

'For the loſs of ſome friends we regret more than we grieve; for the loſs of others we grieve, yet do not regret.' To regret and to grieve are ſo nearly ſynonymous, that this maxim is not very intelligible. We may, however, be ſaid to regret the loſs of a friend who was of great ſervice to us, but whoſe character we could not love enough to grieve for him. To grieve and not regret is to be explained in the reverſe.

'Moſt women lament the death of a lover, not ſo much from real affection, as becauſe they would appear to be the more worthy of having been beloved.' This is by far too ſevere; women lament the death of a lover, as a diſappointment which appears unconquerable. In the exceſs of their grief, they do not believe that it is capable of being diverted by change, or exhauſted by time, but there is very little reaſon to think that vanity can enter a mind diſtreſſed by the tendereſt diſappointment.

'Vivacity, increaſed by age, falls little ſhort of phrenzy.' This is a very extraordinary ſentiment, and deſerves to be conſidered attentively. That gaiety of ſpirits which diſtinguiſhed the French nation, perhaps to a *philoſopher*, would appear little ſhort of phrenzy in all ages, for it was totally independent of thought, and inſtead of being a ſymptom of a happy mind, was a clear indication of an empty one. But a vivacious old man, ſo far from being a lunatic, is univerſally conſidered as one of thoſe objects which the mind dwells upon with pleaſure, becauſe ſuch a character implies good health, the reſult of temperance, and an eaſy mind the conſequence of a virtuous life. Such a man ought often to be preſented to the view of young people,

and contraſted with that deplorable ſtate in which the body is tormented by the dregs of a thouſand licentious pleaſures, and the mind is rendered peeviſh for want of virtuous recollections.

'Men forget not only benefits but injuries: they even hate thoſe who have obliged them: and ceaſe to hate thoſe who have injured them. An attention to requite kindneſſes, and revenge wrongs, ſeems to be equally inſupportable.' Man muſt be a monſter indeed, if this maxim is to be taken in its full ſenſe. Forgetfulneſs of injuries is ſo amiable, and partakes ſo much of the true Chriſtian ſpirit, that it is ſurpriſing Rochefoucault ſhould have made it the attribute of the ſame man who could hate thoſe who have obliged him. Men certainly do not hate their benefactors at the moment of receiving favours, nor perhaps ever after; but there is ſome danger in a man's neglecting to be grateful when he has it in his power. Various circumſtances may make him forget a benefit which it is in his power to repay, and meeting with the perſon to whom he has been obliged, may affect him with ſuch a ſenſe of ſhame, as will make him wiſh the object of his gratitude out of the way; but this ſtill would not amount to hatred, unleſs from a very bad heart. Gratitude is a duty of ſuch a delicate nature, that it never ſhould be performed ſo as to appear a *duty*.

One of the worſt maxims in this excellent collection, if not *the* worſt, is that 'A reſolution never to deceive others, expoſes a man to be deceived himſelf.' Whoever forms his conduct upon ſuch a precept as this, may become a ſecond Cheſterfield, but, like him, when diſcovered, he will be deſpiſed by the virtuous part of mankind. This maxim ſeems farther to imply that they who diſregard it, that is, all good men, are moſt liable to be deceived, which is, in other words, ſaying that good men are greater fools than the bad. No experience will juſtify this, the wicked being the conſtant dupes of themſelves or of others.

On the ſame ſubject, our author ſays, 'It is far happier to be deceived, than undeceived by thoſe we love.' Love-ſick poets have often improved on this maxim, which will not bear a ſerious examination.

'Fidelity, in moſt men, is one of the arts of ſelf-love, to procure confidence. It is the means to raiſe us above thoſe very perſons, of whoſe momentous concerns we make ourſelves the depoſitaries.' Rochefoucault has a ſtrong bias toward imputing the beſt virtues to ſelfiſh motives. But why does he ſtate only one advantage attending fidelity, and that the one which will ſeldom *firſt* enter into a man's head? Why did not this agreeable moraliſt (for ſuch he is in an eminent degree) inform us that fidelity is the ſureſt proof of integrity and wiſdom, reſiſting every impulſe from vanity, every temptation from intereſt? Why does he not tell us that confidence is ſo highly valued, as even by bad men to be held ſacred?

The following maxim is not very intelligible without our recollecting the principles of French gallantry. 'It is more difficult to be faithful to a miſtreſs, when on good terms with her, than when on bad.' There are few men of common ſenſe whoſe fidelity would not ſoon be exhauſted by the frequent return of 'bad terms.'

'How cloſely does folly attend us through life! When a man ſeems to be wiſe, it is merely that his follies are proportionate to his age and his fortune.' That folly attends us pretty cloſely through life, cannot well be denied; but the reſt of this maxim is too degrading and peeviſh. There are follies proportionate to every age, and every degree of fortune, whether by fortune he means fate, or riches. But when a man *ſeems to be wiſe*, is it when we ſee him acting fooliſhly?

'In the diſtreſs of our friends, we ever find ſomething not diſpleaſing

to us.' This maxim has occaſioned more diſpute among critics and writers, who pretend to know the world, than almoſt any other in the book. Swift and lord Cheſterfield ſupport this maxim, upon what grounds the writer of this paper cannot conceive. Had the author not made uſe of the word *ever*, the maxim might have paſſed current. Where the diſtreſs of a friend contributes to our intereſt, we find ſomething not diſpleaſing to us. Where the diſtreſs of a friend affords us an opportunity to be kind or grateful to him, we find ſomething not diſpleaſing. But that this is *ever* the caſe, or that it is the caſe in more inſtances than have been ſtated, I cannot comprehend. If the diſtreſs of a friend removes no evil from me, or brings me no advantage, it is impoſſible that I ſhould find ſomething not diſpleaſing in it, unleſs my heart were ſo bad as not only, not to pity, but even to enjoy the diſtreſs of others. If my friend is mangled by a fall from his horſe, if he is killed in a duel, if he becomes a bankrupt, or commits a crime for which his life is forfeited to the law, what can there be in ſuch diſtreſſes 'that is not diſpleaſing.' It is to be regretted that the word *ever* ſtands in this maxim. Were it juſt, what empty ſounds are friendſhip, ſympathy, benevolence!

'Gravity is a myſterious carriage of the body, invented to cover the defects of the mind.' It is unfortunate for this maxim, that an attentive obſervation of human life will not juſtify it in any degree. The biography of all wiſe and good men, with a very few exceptions, is againſt it. Men of primitive piety and manners are grave, not from any neceſſity to cover the defects of the mind, but from habits of ſerious thinking. Men of deep ſtudy, the Newtons and the Lockes, are grave from the ſame cauſe. The hypocrite, who puts on gravity, does it for a ſpecific purpoſe, and ſo difficult is it to keep up the appearance, that he generally is ſoon detected. In ſtupid men we find a gravity, but this is far from being invented to cover the defects of the mind; it is a defect itſelf, ariſing from not being able to comprehend the ridiculous in common affairs or converſation.

I have ſaid above, that gratitude is a duty of a delicate nature. Rochefoucault illuſtrates this by a maxim which I have great pleaſure in quoting. 'Extraordinary haſte to diſcharge an obligation, is a ſort of ingratitude.' I will not injure the ſimple beauty of this remark by any thing of my own. Volumes cannot expreſs more. It is, however, contraſted by the following, 'We ſeldom find people ungrateful, ſo long as we are in a condition to ſerve them.' This is ſo true, ſo trite, ſo hackneied, that I wiſh it had come from ſome good old gammar at the fire ſide, and not from the acute and penetrating duke de la Rochefoucault.

'Thoſe, on whom we confer benefits, we are fonder of, than thoſe from whom we receive them.' Part of this maxim is in ſome reſpect juſt. Even in good minds, perhaps *always* in good minds, the ſenſe of obligation is painful; and a proud mind will have, added to this, to encounter the more painful ſenſe of ſuperiority.

'The virtues and vices are all ſet in motion by intereſt.' This is another inſtance of our author's imputing virtue to bad motives. Were it true, we ſhould ſay that the immenſe majority of virtuous perſons are great fools; for we know that virtue is but partially rewarded in this world, and where it once promotes intereſt, it in a thouſand inſtances obſtructs it. If by intereſt be meant true happineſs, we ſhould allow force to the next maxim, that 'Through intereſt alone we condemn vice, and extol virtue.'

'The ſtudy of man is abundantly more neceſſary than the ſtudy of books.' But the ſtudy of books muſt come firſt. We muſt learn the preſent ſtate of a ſcience before we attempt to improve it. An eminent and illiterate oculiſt acquired a very great degree of knowledge in the diſeaſes of the

eye by practice only—but then he confeſſed in his old age, when ſuch a confeſſion could not injure him, that he had blinded ten thouſand people.

The wiſdom of Solomon has produced few things more juſt, than that 'we ſhould not judge of a man's merit by his great qualities, but by the uſe he makes of them.' This maxim ought to be inſcribed in letters of gold on the door of every aſſembly where *ſtateſmen* meet. It is the only true criterion of merit, although it is to be feared that many *great men* will ſuffer by the application of it.

Moderation is certainly a virtue of conſiderable importance, but it is often conſtitutional, and we may agree with our author in ſaying, that 'we make a virtue of it, in order to bound the ambition of great men, and to comfort moderate geniuſes for their ſlender fortune, and their ſlender merit.' It muſt be remarked, that moderation of deſires only is meant here. The French have lately cut off the heads of *moderés*, or men of moderate political ſentiments.

'Old age is a tyrant; it forbids the pleaſures of youth on pain of death.' This is prettily expreſſed, but it conveys an improper inſinuation againſt Him who appoints our times and our ſeaſons. But we perfectly coincide with Rochefoucault in thinking, that 'Few people are qualified to be old.'

'Notwithſtanding all the care we take to conceal our paſſions under the pretences of religion and honour, they ſtill appear through ſuch flimſy veils.' Rochefoucault knew little of religion, and may be allowed to think it a flimſy veil. Had not religion, however, corrected the paſſions of mankind, however inſenſible ſome of them may be to its influences, what a world would this have been? What, indeed, are men, when they have thrown off this reſtraint? Look at a neighbouring nation!

'In our reprehenſions, pride has a greater ſhare than good-nature. We reprove, not ſo much in order to correct, as to intimate that we hold ourſelves free from ſuch failings.' This is an ungenerous repreſentation of the caſe. Parents, guardians, the wiſe, the experienced, have a better motive for their reprehenſions, and can in very few caſes promote their own vanity. Rochefoucault ſeems to confound reprehenſions for the purpoſe of correction, with that petulant habit of finding fault, which we diſcover in vain and ſuperficial people, and which is always more diſguſting than beneficial.

It has been already mentioned, that our philoſopher attributes all our actions to ſelf-love, which, ſays he, 'juſt as it happens to be well or ill conducted, conſtitutes virtue or vice.' In this ſentiment he has been oppoſed by many eminent writers; but what he ſays on the ſubject is not unworthy of attention, ſince it will ſerve to put us on our guard, and enable us to trace our actions to their real motives. If by ſelf-love be underſtood a deſire of happineſs, it will be difficult for us not to refer many of our actions to this ſource. But every good mind, every mind tinctured with a pious regard to duty, and enlightened with the proſpect of a future and a *perfect* ſtate, will diſtinguiſh between ſelf-love and *ſelfiſhneſs*, and will often do good actions againſt the latter principle, and indeed againſt every conſideration that can interfere with duty. And I cannot help thinking that he has given a very good antidote to his own ſentiments in the following maxim, that 'Nothing is ſo capable of diminiſhing ſelf-love as the obſervation, that we diſapprove at one time what we approve at another.

The ſame principle inclines our author to ſay, that 'We ſpeak little, when vanity prompts us not.' Why ſome men ſpeak much, and ſome little, by no means, in all caſes, depends on vanity, but on difference of converſation talents. In converſation, as in a play, the greateſt performer has the longeſt part. Many men ſpeak much, from a ſocial diſpoſition, and to provoke others to make the converſation a common buſineſs. The

vain-

vaineſt men will ſometimes be quite ſilent, and proud men are with difficulty prevailed upon to honour the company with their ſentiments. We may ſafely aver that, wholly independent of vanity, learning and talents will naturally ſhine forth. Men, who talk from mere vanity, are ſoon ſilenced, if they be worth liſtening to at all.

'Vanity, more than reaſon, induces us to act againſt inclination.' This cannot be the caſe in thoſe reſtraints which we impoſe on ourſelves from a ſenſe of duty, religion, or honour, becauſe they cannot be known to the world, and vanity is a paſſion of no uſe in retirement. When we get the better of a very bad inclination, we are not very fond of having it known that we ever poſſeſſed it.

It is a great *deſideratum* in our moral conduct, to be able to diſtinguiſh between virtue and vice, but ſurely all would be confuſion and irregularity, were the following maxim true, that 'Our virtues are commonly vices diſguiſed.' It is not impoſſible that this may *ſometimes* be the caſe; but were it ſo *commonly*, who ſhould be be able to tell what virtue is, or to practiſe it? Our author goes on to ſay, that 'it is not always from the principle of valour and chaſtity, that men are valiant, or that women are chaſte.' But if we find a valiant man and a chaſte woman, how ſhall we be able to refer their valour or chaſtity to any other than the true principle? Rochefoucault appears to me to *hazard* an opinion here, which he could not learn from obſervation or experience.

It is true, that 'proſperity is a ſtronger trial of virtue than adverſity;' but at the ſame time it may be added, that ſome men have embraced a virtuous life in proſperity, who did not attain to that proſperity by the moſt virtuous actions.

'Virtue would not go far, were vanity not to bear her company.' I have already noticed our author's inclination to aſcribe good actions to bad motives, or, in other words, to make evil the parent of good; and it is not here neceſſary to comment farther on ſo unpleaſant a ſubject.

'Strength and weakneſs of mind are improper terms; they are in reality the good or ill diſpoſition of the organs of the body.' Materialiſts will be pleaſed with the authority of Rochefoucault, but what can be ſo contradictory to common obſervation as this maxim? Do we not know, that even at the point of death, the mental faculties are in perfect vigour, and the bodily organs in complete debility? Or is there no difference between a ſick Newton and a healthy clown?

The moſt remarkable inſtance of prejudice to be found in the maxims of our author, or perhaps any where elſe, appears in the following: 'An averſion to untruth is often an imperceptible ambition to give weight to our own affirmations.' The motives to truth are many, and men's intereſt, if they attended to nothing elſe, would on all occaſions prompt them to be ſincere; but ſuch a motive as occurs in this maxim, is, we believe, very rare. Far more unjuſt, however, is his maxim, that 'the virtue of women is often no more than the love of reputation and quiet;' but it is not worthy of a ſerious refutation. He preſerves the ſame train of thinking, when he ſays that 'Sobriety is either the love of health, or an incapacity for debauch,' whereas moſt ſober men perſiſt in their ſyſtem, not ſo much from a love of health, as from a deſire to avoid the vices and follies incident to intemperate perſons.

It is difficult, and perhaps impoſſible, to defend maxims which, beſide being at war with experience and honeſt feelings, have a direct tendency to make men as deceitful and ſelfiſh as they are here repreſented. We never find true virtue, benevolence, or uſefulneſs in men, who commence miſanthropes upon *principle*, as they term it. A man who forms too good an opinion

opinion of his fellow creatures, is liable in ſome caſes to be deceived; but he who conſiders them as villains and deceivers, will never contribute by example to make them otherwiſe. On the other hand, if there are any perſons, who from their ſecret emotions are convinced that thoſe maxims which I have taken the liberty to reprehend in this paper, are juſt, they have an opportunity to do away the reproach; for as our author obſerves, 'Our chief wiſdom conſiſts in being ſenſible of our follies.'

I ſhall conclude theſe remarks with the opinion of a very fine writer on the ſyſtem, which attributes every thing to ſelf-love. Were man, ſays he, altogether ſelfiſh, his nature would lead him to indulge the pleaſant emotion, without making any acknowledgment to the perſon who gives him pleaſure, more than to a pure air or temperate clime: but as man is endued with a principle of benevolence as well as of ſelfiſhneſs, he is prompted by his nature to deſire the good of every ſenſible being that gives him pleaſure; and the happineſs of that being is the gratification of his deſire. The final cauſe of deſire ſo directed, is illuſtrious: it contributes to a man's own happineſs, by affording him means of gratification beyond what ſelfiſhneſs can afford; and at the ſame time, it tends eminently to advance the happineſs of others. This lays open a beautiful theory in the nature of man; a ſelfiſh action can only benefit myſelf: a benevolent action benefits myſelf as much as it benefits others. In a word, benevolence may not improperly be ſaid to be the moſt refined ſelfiſhneſs; which, by the way, ought to ſilence certain ſhallow philoſophers, who, ignorant of human nature, teach a diſguſtful doctrine, That, to ſerve others, unleſs with a view to our own happineſs, is weakneſs and folly; as if ſelf-love only, and not benevolence, contributed to our happineſs. The hand of God is too viſible in the human frame to permit us to think ſeriouſly, that there ever can be any jarring or inconſiſtency among natural principles, thoſe eſpecially of ſelf-love and benevolence, which govern the bulk of our actions.

This ſeems to be the true ſtate of the caſe, and this view of the ſubject, while it is more conſonant to experience, is alſo better calculated, than that of Rochefoucault, to improve our habits of goodneſs and benevolence. In a work ſo full of the moſt excellent truths, applicable to every ſtage and every ſtate of life, it is to be regretted that the author admitted maxims that tend to wean us from the love of our fellow creatures, and to convert our affection into ſuſpicion. Rochefoucault's maxims are univerſally read and admired, and it is hoped that the few criticiſms attempted in this paper will at leaſt have the effect to make his readers pauſe, and conſult their own feelings and their own obſervation, before they beſtow an implicit aſſent on aſſertions degrading to human nature, and conſequently dangerous to human happineſs.

P. P. T.

THE GUARDIAN ANGEL.

NUMBER XIV.

IT is one of the peculiar characteriſtics of the Chriſtian religion, that the conſiderations by which it was inculcated and enforced by its firſt teachers, are in every reſpect remote from the views of worldly intereſt and ambition. The divine author of that religion exhorted his diſciples to diffuſe the knowledge of the goſpel, and to extend its influence, by a bright diſplay of its reforming power upon themſelves. 'Let your light,' ſaid he, 'ſo ſhine before men, that they may ſee your good works, and glorify your Father which is in heaven.' This was a manly, noble, and generous

generous method of proceeding, which, had it been ſtrictly conformed to, in every ſucceeding generation, would, before this period, have rendered the religion of the goſpel the religion of the world.

Among the various ſources of aſſent to religious truth, there are none which operate ſo ſucceſsfully as thoſe, in which men are conſcious of exerting the voluntary powers of the mind. Religious principles may be the offſpring of terror, or may be impreſſed by education; but when they are the reſult of ſerious, earneſt, and diſpaſſionate attention, they are conſtantly found to be more deeply fixed in the receſſes of the ſoul, and to exert a more extenſive influence over the affections of the heart.

It is the deſire of happineſs that calls forth theſe voluntary powers, and animates men to inveſtigate that mode of action which is moſt likely to be conducive to their intereſt. If, upon inquiry, therefore, it ſhould appear, that the profeſſion of a particular religion is attended, in the perſon who acknowledges its influence, by a ſuperior quantity of real enjoyment, the deſire of partaking of that enjoyment, will naturally induce others to inquire minutely into its ſources, and, at length, to adopt with pleaſure the principle from which ſuch beneficial practice flows.

Let it be ſuppoſed that the inhabitants of a certain diſtrict are obſerved to enjoy a more than ordinary degree of activity and ſtrength; that their minds are, in a remarkable manner, exempt from inflaming paſſions; their bodies from the influence of diſeaſe; and, in fine, that their days are extended to the utmoſt verge of human life. The ſingularity of theſe appearances would excite an univerſal attention to the circumſtances of the caſe; and the love of happineſs, implanted in the human frame, would add new vigour to that curioſity which is ſo natural to the mind. Perſons of all principles, ſects, and parties, forgetting their mutual animoſities, would think themſelves intereſted in inquiring into thoſe ſecret ſprings and cauſes, which produced ſuch extraordinary effects. Having diſcovered them, they would be powerfully impelled to adopt thoſe principles, and to imitate that mode of conduct, which, upon experiment, had been found ſo beneficial to their ſpecies. All other motives and incentives to any courſe of action muſt be ineffectual, if theſe will not ſucceed. Mankind act, in every inſtance, upon the expectation of enjoyment; and when they fail in this their grand purſuit, they err through miſtake, or ignorance of the means. But, when the cauſe and effect are viſibly united; when they behold the principle exerted in the actual production of real good; to refuſe their aſſent to the principle, or not to imitate the practice, would be to diſown thoſe affections, which operate moſt powerfully in the direction of the will.

The particular circumſtances of the world, when firſt the religion of Jeſus was promulgated, merit the moſt attentive conſideration. The firſt propagators of the goſpel had to contend with difficulties, which, in the common views of things, would have been deemed inſurmountable. With reſpect to the Jews, for inſtance, it might naturally be expected, that they would hold this new religion in abhorrence, becauſe it tended to deprive them of every flattering expectation of that temporal grandeur, for which they fondly wiſhed, and which no conſiderations of a merely ſpiritual nature could induce them to reſign. The Gentiles, moreover, would naturally be inclined to hold it in deteſtation, becauſe it directly ſtruck at that idolatrous worſhip, and immoral conduct, which were then countenanced by every eſtabliſhed inſtitution, whether of a civil or religious nature.

In theſe circumſtances, had the founders of the Chriſtian religion endeavoured to ſupport it by the ſtrength of human power, it is probable that its

its duration would have terminated almoſt at the moment of its appearance, and even the hiſtory of its deſtruction might have been unknown to us.

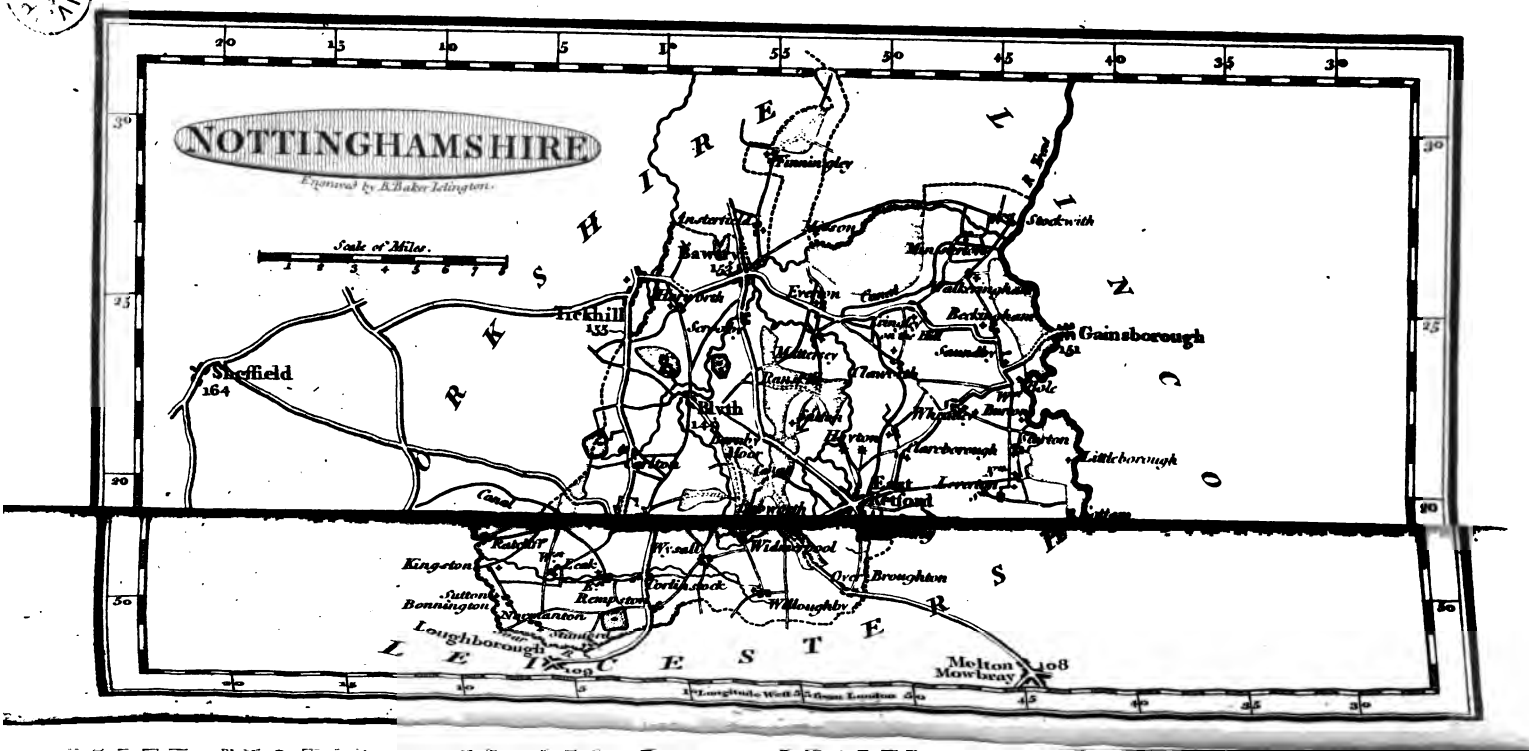
Had they endeavoured to raiſe it upon the ruins of preceding eſtabliſhments by the aid of political contrivance, it would, probably, in the common courſe of human affairs, have yielded to political contrivance in its turn; and the recorded declaration of its author, that 'the gates of hell ſhould not prevail againſt it,' would have become an undeniable evidence of its having originated in falſehood and impoſture. It appears, therefore, that any mode of conduct, different from that which was purſued by the primitive profeſſors of the goſpel, in obedience to the directions of their Divine Inſtructor, who declared to them that 'his kingdom was not of this world,' could not have been attended with a ſimilar ſucceſs.

Religion had ſo frequently been rendered ſubſervient to political intereſts, and ſelfiſh purpoſes, that men juſtly called for ſome leſs equivocal evidence of the truth of a ſyſtem, which claimed to itſelf a right of directing the conduct of mankind. That evidence was afforded in its fulleſt luſtre, when the ſoftened manners, and the heavenly temper of Chriſtian people, were propoſed as the demonſtration of the truth and purity of the Chriſtian faith.

By the fruits of the goſpel, manifeſted in every part of the irreproachable demeanour of its true diſciples, their adverſaries were invited to judge of the tree from which they ſprang. They were invited to contemplate the mighty powers of a religion, which could diſarm the mind of anger in the moment of its fierceſt relentment; and could finally prevail over every incentive to thoſe crimes, which, as had appeared from melancholy experience, human laws were unable to reſtrain. At a time when every unworthy inclination reigned in the place of thoſe affections, to which mankind are indebted for the comforts of domeſtic life, they were invited to behold the power of this religion, in triumphing over every lawleſs indulgence, every licentious practice, which the violence of diſtorted imagination, aided by the ſtrength of inveterate cuſtom, had eſtabliſhed in the world. They were invited to behold the influence of this religion in inſpiring that breaſt with ſentiments of piety, which was formerly the abode of irreligion and profaneneſs; in generating the principles of an upright, honeſt, friendly, and beneficent deportment in that heart, which was deformed by every paſſion that could render man odious to his neighbour, and miſerable to himſelf.

Theſe fruits of the Chriſtian faith produced an animated attention to the Chriſtian cauſe. Upon examination into the principles of conduct recommended in the goſpel, they appeared to be ſuch as might reaſonably be ſuppoſed to form the moſt effectual inducement to every virtuous action; and they derived a permanent, as well as tranſcendent influence, from the glorious hope of immortality, which forms the grand and fundamental article of the Chriſtian creed. The effects produced, in conſequence of this belief, were in themſelves a teſtimony, that the evidence, by which this important truth was ſupported, reſted on the ſolid foundation of unqueſtionable fact.

To a deviation from the purity and ſimplicity of manners, which were ſo eminently conſpicuous in the earlier ages of Chriſtianity, is to be aſcribed the comparatively inſignificant progreſs of the goſpel in ſucceeding times. Hence, at this day, the ſincere diſciple of the benevolent Jeſus laments, that the religion of his maſter is bounded by the limits of kingdoms and of nations; and that, in ſo many portions of the habitable globe, its profeſſion, or its influence, is even ſtill unknown. The name of Chriſtian, indeed, is borne to every region of the earth; but, at the ſame


NOTTINGHAMSHIRE
Engraved by B. Baker Islington.
Scale of Miles.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
Sheffield
164
Tickhill
133
Bawtry
153
Finningley
Misson
Stockwith
Gainsborough
151
Beckingham
Saundby
Clarborough
Littleborough
Bolton
Retford
East
Bawtry
Blyth
Wysall
Widmerpool
Over Broughton
Willoughby
Kingston
Sutton
Bonnington
Loughborough
Rempston
Melton
Mowbray
108
Longitude West 55 from London
Canal
Canal
R. Trent

time, are borne along with it thoſe horrid forms of vice by which that name is diſhonoured and polluted. The inhabitants of many a diſtant clime, aſtoniſhed at the contrariety between the profeſſions of Chriſtians and their practice, are juſtly induced to ſuſpect, that they themſelves believe not the doctrines they inculcate. They may, with reaſon, therefore, hold faſt that form of faith, which their more virtuous anceſtors have eſtabliſhed in their land. Hence, the obligation to adorn a Chriſtian profeſſion by a Chriſtian practice, riſes with the increaſing profligacy of theſe degenerate times.

There are moments of diſtreſs and danger, indeed, in which even the heart of the moſt licentious infidel is chilled by the ſeverity of his own reflections, But, how unlike to the effects of true religion are the impreſſions thus produced on a mind like this! His ſoul is aſtoniſhed and overwhelmed by the horrors of a ſuperſtition, which degrades it ſtill more; but, as his danger recedes and diſappears, his apprehenſions of futurity vaniſh; and his infidel manners and diſſolute profaneneſs return with his returning health. Thus religion becomes, in his idea, another name for weakneſs; and the reflections which ſhe ought to excite in his breaſt, on every view of mortality, are referred to the claſs of thoſe mental wanderings, which are frequently obſerved to take place, when the fleſh and the heart begin to fail.

In ſuch times, therefore, it concerns the real friends of Chriſtianity to convince their brethren, that the religion which they profeſs is the ſource of calm compoſure, the parent of every ſober joy; that it contains ſanctions, naturally productive of a virtuous, uniform, conſiſtent character; fitted to reſtore to its proper dignity the mind of man; to ſecure to it the only real bleſſings of this tranſitory ſcene; and to fit and prepare it for the reliſh and enjoyment of celeſtial pleaſures, when time, and all the pleaſures of time, ſhall be no more.

An Account of NOTTINGHAMSHIRE: *With a neat and accurate* MAP *of that County.*

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE is bounded on the north by Yorkſhire and Lincolnſhire, on the eaſt by the latter county, on the ſouth by Leiceſterſhire, and on the weſt by Derbyſhire. Its greateſt length is 48 miles; its greateſt breadth above 20. It lies in the dioceſe of York; is divided into eight hundreds; contains nine market towns, and 168 pariſhes; and ſends eight members to parliament. Being happily ſituated between the mountainous country of Derbyſhire on the one hand and the flat of Lincolnſhire on the other, it enjoys ſuch a temperature of ſoil and climate, as to render it one of the moſt fertile and agreeable counties in England. The principal rivers are the Trent and Idle. Almoſt the whole of the middle and weſtern parts of the county were formerly occupied by the extenſive foreſt of Sherwood, which is the only royal foreſt north of the Trent; but the wood has in many parts been cleared, and the extent of foreſt much contracted. A canal from Cheſterfield in Derbyſhire runs across the northern part of this county, and falls into the Trent, juſt as that river ceaſes to be its boundary. The chief products of this county are pit-coal, of which there is great plenty; a kind of ſtone ſomewhat like alabaſter, but not ſo hard, which, when burnt, makes a plaſter harder than that of Paris, with which the inhabitants generally plaſter the floors of their upper rooms, inſtead of boarding them. Their other commodities are malt, wool, liquorice, wood, fiſh, and fowl. Their manufactures chiefly conſiſt of frame-work knitting, glaſs, and earthenware.

The principal town is of the ſame name.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, October 1793.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	29,68	59,5	61,5	62,5	5	SSW 2	chiefly cloudy and drizzling rain
	2	29,65	61,5	63	57,5	5	SW 2	little rain. more wind : leſs wind and fine
2	7	29,93	51	82	48	2	SW 1	: cloudy. ſhower of hail
	2	29,82	57,5	62,5	45	5	W 2	little rain. fine night
3	7	30,13	49,5	53,5	51	2	SW 1	. cloudy and little rain
	2	30,18	60	62	50	5	W 1	. windy night : little wet
4	7	30,06	57	60,5	55,5	5	SW 2	drizzling rain. fine
	2	30,14	64,5	64,5	51	2	WSW 2	: cloudy and little wet
5	7	30,21	59	63	56,5	5	W 1	. fine
N	2	30,27	64	65,5	51	2	W 1	: cloudy
6	7	30,23	57,5	63	52,5	5	SW 2	. fine : chiefly cloudy
	2	30,25	63	66,5	50	5	WSW 1	. little wet. chiefly fine
7	7	30,30	51,5	60	52	4	WSW 1	. fine
	2	30,23	62	64	47	2	SW 2	. cloudy night : fine
8	7	30,30	53	61,5	51	1	W 1	. more cloudy
	2	30,28	61	63,5	50,5	4	WSW 2	
9	7	30,27	52,5	62,5	52,5	h	SW 1	. fine
	2	30,14	60,5	63	50	1	SSW 1	
10	7	29,98	52	60	56,5	f	S 1	. fine
	2	29,92	62	64,5	52	3	SW 1	. cloudy night
11	7	29,97	54	61	51	5	WSW 1	
	2	29,97	58	62	48	5	WSW 1	
12	7	29,92	57	62	72	5	ESE 1	: fine
	2	29,94	64	64,5	57,5	2	SE 1	
13	7	30,08	58	64	57	2	SSW 1	
	2	30,08	64	65,5	46	1	SSW 1	. cloudy night
14	7	30,13	57	62	55	5	S 1	: fine
	2	30,23	61,5	65,5	47	3	NNW 1	
15	7	30,45	43,5	56	48	2	NNW 1	
	2	30,50	55	61	47	2	NW 1	
16	7	30,49	54	61	49,5	h	W 1	. fine
	2	30,42	60	64	45,5	3	WNW 1	: cloudy
17	7	30,31	49	58	51	5	NW 1	
	2	30,30	59	62,5	50,5	5	NW 1	. chiefly drizzling. fine night : cloudy
18	7	30,31	49	59	53	5	N 1	hazy
	2	30,28	55	60,5	52	5	WNW 1	hazy
19	7	30,26	51	57	52	h	W 1	
F	2	30,22	54,5	60	47	4	W 1	hazy
20	7	30,18	52,5	60	50	4	W 1	. hazy
	2	30,14	55,5	61	46,5	5	W 1	hazy : fine
21	7	30,17	49,5	57,5	49,5	o	W 1	
	2	30,27	49	53	47	3	W 2	. calm cloudy night
22	7	30,24	53,5	61	52	h	W o	. wind S and drizzling fog
	2	30,24	56	61	57	5	E 2	
23	7	30,30	52	59	52	4	E 1	hazy
	2	30,25	56	59,5	46,5	3	ESE 1	hazy
24	7	30,02	45,5	55	48	f	SE 1	. fine
	2	29,92	51	57	46,5	3	SSW 1	: little rain
25	7	29,77	50	52	52	f	W 1	. more wind : little wet
	2	29,64	54	59	51	5	SSW 3	. little wet at times. windy night
26	7	29,57	57,5	60	56	5	SW 4	: little wet
	2	29,55	59,5	61	53	5	SW 4	little wet. leſs wind.
27	7	29,51	54	60,5	54,5	4	SSW 2	. little wet
	2	29,49	57	62,5	51,5	4	SW 2	. fine
28	7	29,78	45	57	52	1	WSW 1	
	2	29,96	52,5	58,5	46,5	1	NW 1	
29	7	29,81	49	57	52	2	SSW 1	. more wind and cloudy
	2	29,54	56	58	50,5	5	SSW 3	. much rain : fine
30	7	29,32	40	54,5	50,5	1	W 2	
	2	29,40	47	56	46	2	W 1	
31	7	29,27	37	49,5	49,5	3	WSW 1	
	2	29,32	43,5	53	47	2	N 2	

Observe-

Observations *on the* Diseases *in* October 1793.

THIS month was on the whole healthy, and the diſeaſes which prevailed, were ſimilar to thoſe of the preceding one; the ſmallpox was not quite ſo frequent, but ſtill continued confluent, and was rather more fatal. Gout, which is the diſeaſe of the ſeaſon, was very prevalent; and where the rheumatic fever occurred, it principally attacked thoſe who were before accuſtomed to that complaint. Many perſons were afflicted with the mumps, which was the moſt prevailing diſeaſe. To the account of croup, given laſt month, it has been obſerved, that children afflicted with ſcrofula, or thoſe born of ſcrofulous parents, were moſt liable to that diſeaſe.

GENERAL THOUGHTS ON WAR.

WHEN we carefully inſpect the minds of men, and minutely inveſtigate the cauſes which determine them to the proſecution of any enterpriſe, we ſhall find a ſtrange compound of inconſiſtent opinions, and of incongruous principles, by which they are actuated. Fully confident of their own importance, and the wiſdom and juſtneſs of their own ſentiments, it is with the utmoſt impatience that they hear them called into queſtion; they defend them with warmth; and are inſenſibly led forward into the heat of diſputation, till they are inflamed with all the virulence of malignity, and proceed to the bittereſt acerbity of reproach. If thus, concerning opinionative trifles, private individuals of one community, and not ſeldom of one kindred or family, can thus indulge the inimical ſenſations of malevolence, which only the fear of impending juſtice perhaps reſtrains from breaking out into more violent meaſures, and more fatal indications of revenge; it is no wonder that thoſe, who have the ſupreme direction of the affairs of nations, when national privileges, when public intereſts, which they have the care of, are attacked, and threatened to be ſubverted, ſhould exert that power which they poſſeſs, to chaſtize the aggreſſors, and teach them, at leaſt, to reſpect ſuperior force, if they regard not the ſuggeſtions of natural juſtice. Theſe are commonly the alledged reaſons for entering into a war: without them, indeed, no excuſe can be given for thoſe, who bring upon mankind all the miſeries attendant on that terrible ſcourge. For whatever proſpects they may hold forth of future advantages to be obtained, of more conſolidated and ſtable peace, or ſubſtantial benefits to the country; yet their ſucceſs depends upon the contingency of fortunate events, of which no human foreſight could poſſibly obtain any intimation; and the immediate effects are heavy burdens upon the people in general, diſtreſs and woe to many private individuals, and horror and devaſtation to thoſe regions, where the active operations of a campaign are carried on. When the reaſons abovementioned operate in full force, and are well founded, it would be the moſt exceſſive cowardice tamely to acquieſce in public injuries, and neglect the proſecution of vigorous meaſures for the obtaining redreſs. Thoſe, who thus omit to vindicate the honour of their country, baſely betray their truſt, and deſerve the contempt of all good patriots. But if, by a wiſe and diligent adminiſtration, if, by vigorous exertions, and a prudent foreſight, they acquire thoſe advantages which they profeſs ſo much anxiety to obtain, they certainly merit, not only encomiums, but rewards.

Whether wars be neceſſary to the economy of the world, we cannot preſume to determine; but the experience of all ages indicates that they

are very common. In fact, the hiſtory of the world is nothing more than the hiſtory of wars, by which it has been agitated and convulſed; of inteſtine confuſions, which have ſapped the foundations of governments and ſtates; or of foreign campaigns, by which they have been gradually exhauſted, and finally overthrown. To trace the riſe and fall of empires, to mark the progreſs of ſucceſsful ambition, and with an anxious eye, through toils and dangers, through ſlippery fields, and ſcenes of ſlaughter and deſtruction, to attend a favourite victorious hero, are ſubjects on which hiſtorians delight to expatiate. The miſeries in which the folly or madneſs of ſupreme governors have involved their ſubjects, crowd their pages with relations of miſchievous activity: but the ſterile years of peace are hurried over, as periods of time dull and unintereſting, diſtinguiſhed by nothing remarkable, or capable of conveying to their readers either inſtruction or entertainment; and in which no occurrence can be found worthy of being tranſmitted to poſterity.

It has been to ſome a matter of ſurpriſe, that the people who compoſe hoſtile armies, can meet each other with ſuch deadly animoſity; ſeeing they have no perſonal reſentment to provoke their fury, and no particular injurious provocations to excite them to revenge. But if the extent of national prejudices be conſidered, and how readily each man takes up the cauſe of his country as his own, together with the hope of that glory which he may acquire, by vindicating her rights, and humbling her foes, aſtoniſhment will ſoon ceaſe. Indeed, it may here be replied, that this glory is chiefly enjoyed by the commander, and but a ſmall ſhare of it falls to the lot of the inferior individuals of his army. Yet it is ſufficient to every one, that he participates in the triumph of his general, and he conſiders his own fame as inſeparably annexed to, and interwoven with his; he is ſatisfied, and with the moſt heartfelt gratulation 'ſhares with his lord the pleaſure and the pride.' It is impoſſible for a compaſſionate mind to refrain from ſhedding a tear on the fate of thoſe brave men, whom the fortune of war has levelled with the earth. Do you weep over him?—It is well—to purchaſe that tear, he has braved innumerable hardſhips, expoſed himſelf to all the inclemencies of the elements, has faced death in all his dreadful and ghaſtly forms, and has at laſt periſhed in the conflict. If he knows that his country will lament him when he falls, if ſhe commend and rejoice with him when he is victorious, the ſoldier is content; he aſks no higher reward. Honour is the ſupreme object of his wiſhes, and the point in which all his hopes are concentrated. The generous thirſt of fame infuſes into his breaſt an heroic ardour, a determined valour; and a fortitude which no danger can appal. It is not till after a long ſeries of practice, and uſing many coercive efforts, that the human mind can be brought to reflect abſtractedly, and reaſon upon ſubjects, which can receive no illuſtration from ſenſible and material images. We make uſe of a natural and very common exertion, to place before our eyes ſome picture or reſemblance of the object which we contemplate; and thus, from this phantom of the imagination, we form our notions of the reality. If then we make uſe of this power of the mind, and tranſport ourſelves in idea to the ſcene of action, where two hoſtile armies are engaged; if we view the battalions, as yet undiminiſhed in number, marching onward to meet the foe; the cruel carnage at length begun; hear the tremendous exploſions of the artillery; ſee hundreds fall on either ſide, deformed with hideous wounds, and gaſping in death; hear the cries of the wounded, and behold on all hands the dreadful effects of ungovernable fury; we ſhall ſhrink with horror from the ſight. If we farther reflect, that every one who periſhes in this conflict has left ſome

dear relatives to lament his fall; ſome parent, ſome lover, or ſome friend; perhaps (far tenderer tye) ſome beloved wife, and helpleſs infants, by his death plunged into inconſolable miſery; we feel the tender ſenſations of compaſſion thrilling through our boſoms, and we feel ourſelves diſpoſed to execrate the ſource whence all theſe woes proceed. But ſo it is, and ever will be in ſubjects of general and national concern; ſome individuals will always be ſure to ſuffer. Some few muſt inevitably be ſacrificed, in the attempt to promote the benefit of the whole. The public intereſt will moſt aſſuredly interfere with the welfare of ſome; and even of thoſe whoſe labours and whoſe attention are entirely directed to ſecure that of the community. Theſe conſiderations ought to leſſen our regret for thoſe that ſuffer, but they will certainly increaſe our eſteem for them, and we ſhall then blend applauſe with our pity.

In pacific times alone can thoſe arts flouriſh, which contribute to the embelliſhment, the refinement, and the pleaſures of life. In pacific times alone can commerce exiſt; when in tranquil ſecurity ſhe can ſend out her fleets, and tranſport her treaſures from ſhore to ſhore, undiſturbed by hoſtile marauders, and free from alarms, ſuſpicion, and diſtruſt. To the bleſſings of peace, every one looks forward with anxiety, as a period of reſt and happineſs. Every one wiſhes that brazen-throated diſcord would ceaſe to vex the world with clamour. But the cauſe which excited the infernal demon muſt firſt be done away; and to give permanent ſtability to peace, it is often neceſſary that the ſoldier ſhould encounter all the horrors of war.

EUSEBIUS.

ON HOSTAGES.

AS the preſent war is in ſome reſpect conducted, or likely to be conducted in a manner very different from any former, and with leſs regard to the laws of nations, the following ſentiments of the learned Bkaudlach will not be unacceptable to our readers. His *Conſultations Illuſtres* is a very ſcarce work, and from a want of uniformity in its merit, probably, has never been tranſlated.

Hoſtages may be conſidered as forcibly carried away by the enemy to be detained till ſomething is conceded or performed; or as voluntarily conſenting to be pledges for the accompliſhment of a promiſe, or the obſervation of a treaty; ſuch hoſtages may very lawfully be required and delivered, and it was not unuſual to inſiſt on the ſons of kings or rulers, when the point was of ſingular moment. Thus Charles XI, king of France, parted with three of his ſons as hoſtages to James king of Arragon; and Francis I, being taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia by the emperor Charles V, exchanged his ſon for himſelf.

Tacitus informs us that the people of Germany were very fond of female hoſtages, imagining a kind of divinity to reſide in the ſex. It has been greatly debated whether a community can nominate a perſon as an hoſtage without his conſent; for my part, I account it no leſs than a violation of natural right. Who ſhall ſubject a man againſt his declared refuſal, to the arbitrary power of another? Yet no leſs a perſon than Grotius affirms, that the public welfare ſo requiring, a ſubject may be delivered up as a hoſtage againſt his will; the ſtate making good all damage to himſelf or family, as likewiſe to that of a voluntary hoſtage. Very different formerly was the condition of hoſtages, as they were accounted captives, and incapable of making a will without licence; their effects alſo not ſeldom confiſcated; whereas milder procedures have of late obtained, their detention has nothing of ſervitude in it, and the only abridge-

abridgement of their freedom is the obſervance of their engagements.

Three queſtions are uſual concerning hoſtages: 1. Whether they may attempt an eſcape, and whether in ſuch a caſe the convention between the principals be annulled? 2. What right conquerors have over hoſtages? the obligations of the latter, and when they ceaſe? 3. Whether hoſtages may ſtake their lives, and if they actually do ſo, whether they can juſtly be put to death?

As to the firſt clauſe of the firſt queſtion to eſcape is perfidy in a hoſtage, eſpecially if he was a volunteer, faith being ſtrictly to be kept even with an enemy. Though an enemy, he is a man, and the general tie of the law of nature, is not ſuperceded by any quarrel; to violate it, is no leſs than virtually renouncing human ſociety; but what is ſtill of infinitely more weight, it is a breach of faith, which is extremely heinous in the ſight of God: for hoſtages, in the moſt ſolemn manner, pledge their faith to continue at the place appointed till the execution of the ſtipulated articles. Now covenants and agreements belong to the ever ſacred law of nations, which is hurt, and as it were rejected, by a failure in any thing agreed on by the contracting parties. After all, what can be a more declared proof of the iniquitouſneſs of ſuch an eſcape, than that the ſtate harbouring the hoſtages thus fled, is conſtrued to break the conventions. The firſt diſcuſſion of this point among the Romans aroſe from Clelia, a noble virgin; who with ſome others had been delivered as hoſtages on the part of the Romans to king Porſenna: ſhe took advantage of the remiſſneſs of her keepers, paſſed the Tiber on horſeback, and amid ſhowers of darts from the enemies got back into Rome: when this adventure came under the deliberation of the ſenate, ſome indeed repreſented that it was a procedure in which there was no colluſion by the ſtate, the young lady having been prompted to it by a delicate ſenſe of virgin modeſty; but Porſenna conſidered it as no leſs than a breach of the compact, and loudly demanded that ſhe ſhould be delivered up; yet was he ſo charmed with the magnanimity of Clelia, that after receiving her in a very honourable manner, he diſmiſſed her with very rich preſents, and the Romans perpetuated the action by an equeſtrian ſtatue erected to female fortitude. Thus unqueſtionable is the right of the party to whom hoſtages are ſent, that they ſhall be fixed ſecurities remaining with them till the accompliſhment of the article, for which they are given; but though bound by the ſanction of an oath to the conqueror, they are entitled to a more liberal treatment than captives, were it only as promoters of peace, whereas the latter are moſtly the ſanguinary hirelings of war. Therefore no cenſure can lie againſt the cardinals, hoſtages for pope Clement VII to the German army, into whoſe hands he had fallen at the ſacking of Rome. The ſavages, to whoſe cuſtody they were committed, fettered them, and threatened worſe, to extort money; but this availing nothing, they dragged theſe venerable perſons to the common place of execution, which would have been ſuch to the hoſtages, had not the multitude openly exclaimed againſt ſuch brutality; this treatment continuing, who can blame them for meditating an eſcape? A ſupper was prepared, and the Germans being plyed with delicious liquors, falling into a drunken ſleep, the cardinals were drawn up through the chimney, and conveyed out of the city. We read in Livy, that the Tarentine hoſtages having, without any provocation, made their eſcapes, upon their being retaken were put to death.

The articles for which hoſtages were given being performed, they are to be diſmiſſed, and even not without ſome marks of regard: to detain them for any freſh incident, or beyond the limited term, if any ſuch was ſpecified, is an injuſtice to be publicly revenged,

veaged, unleſs their own miſbehaviour have given cauſe for ſuch detention. Here, an exception is made by many; no hoſtages as ſuch can be detained, ſay they, for any freſh incidents, but they may as ſubjects of a ſtate, with whom a freſh quarrel has taken place, and therefore, it is not amiſs that this ſhould be guarded againſt in the contract.

It is an axiom among Civilians, that upon the death of a principal in any engagement, the performance of it devolves upon the heirs, both actively and paſſively; an heir ſucceeding to all the right of, and being accounted as one and the ſame perſon with the deceaſed. This is unqueſtionable among ſponſors, but whether it holds good in the caſe of hoſtages requires a further analyſis. Here it muſt be diſtinguiſhed, whether the queſtion relates to the party to whom the hoſtage was given: for upon his deceaſe the hoſtage is no leſs bound to his heir, than a debtor to his creditor's heir; and the hoſtage himſelf dying, his principal is held either immediately to perform the articles, for which ſuch ſecurity was given, or provide another hoſtage.

It has been made a queſtion by ſome, whether an hoſtage given only for the releaſe of another perſon, upon the death of this perſon be diſcharged from his engagement? Alpian decides in the affirmative, and juſtly, death having ſuperceded all claim and power over him as effectually as over a ranſomed captive; and properly introduces the inſtance of Demetrius, who being a hoſtage at Rome in behalf of his brother Antiochus, upon the news of his death repaired to the ſenate and deſired his diſmiſſion, which was readily granted. This is further confirmed by the incontrovertible caſe of a ſurety for the appearance of a perſon under confinement, his death putting an end to the ſuretyſhip; there can be no engagement to impoſſibilities; the ſurety had pledged himſelf for the priſoner's appearance, but an intervening accident renders ſuch appearance impracticable; the ſurety is of courſe diſcharged, unleſs his obligations were pecuniary.

I proceed to the third queſtion, where two points come under conſideration. 1. Whether a freeman can bind himſelf to any corporal puniſhment, much more a capital? 2. Whether ſuch a ſubjection of itſelf gives the party, to which it is made, a right to take away his life? The Romans and Greeks, and indeed all nations unacquainted with revelation, conceived man to have ſuch an abſolute power over his being, as to part with it on any light point of honour, or under inextricable diſtreſs, and much more, that he might conditionally engage it; hence frequent ſuicides and putting ſlaves and hoſtages to death; and on this principle is founded the celebrated ſtory of Damon and Pythias; nay, in the patriarchal times, we find Ruben ſaying to Jacob, 'ſlay my two ſons if I bring not Benjamin back;' but there are few Chriſtian civilians, who will offer to maintain this abſolute right in a man to diſpoſe of his life; the chief argument even for capital puniſhments is taken from ſcriptural authority, and ſome wiſh that a cloſer regard had been paid to ſcripture in the deſignation of puniſhments. This abſolute right was anciently thought transferable, as Ariſtophanes ſays; 'It is not the natural owner of the body who has power over it, but he who has made it his own by purchaſe;' and ſlaves diſpatching themſelves were reckoned to die in an act of injuſtice, diſpoſing of what is no longer their own.

We will ſuppoſe that one or more hoſtages have actually ſubjected themſelves to any extremities; but does the conqueror from thence derive a real right over their lives? An inſtance is brought from Philip de Comines of the Liegeois, who gave hoſtages to Charles the bold, duke of Burgundy, to ſave the city, with a full power of putting them to death upon an infraction of the treaty, of which

which they were ſoon guilty, and great debates aroſe in that prince's council, whether the power ſhould not be carried into execution: the lord de Condé, particularly, was very warm for it, but the queſtion being put to the lord D'Imbrecourt, his opinion was, by all means to keep God on their ſide, by abſtaining from cruelty and revenge; that it was both the moſt prudent and praiſe-worthy way to releaſe the hoſtages, as having delivered themſelves up with a good intention, and in confidence that the peace would have been inviolably obſerved: however, he judged it proper, that at their diſmiſſion, they ſhould be reminded of the duke's mercy, and exhorted to uſe their endeavours to bring their brethren to an equitable, and ſafe peace; and that if they did not prevail, gratitude obliged them never to bear arms againſt the duke. This opinion was followed, and the hoſtages conſented to the foregoing admoniſions, being further warned, that if any ſhould be taken acting in the war, they muſt expect no quarter: the hiſtorian adds, a gentleman in the council hearing the lord de Condé ſo vehement againſt the hoſtages, whiſpered to me, 'Mark that man ſo full of health and vigour; he will certainly die within the year, God will cut him ſhort for the inhumanity of his advice.'

The Volſcians, after giving three hundred hoſtages to the Romans, broke the compact by an unprovoked invaſion; upon which, the latter thought themſelves warranted to behead the hoſtages, and in an ignominious manner, having firſt publicly ſcourged them. Plutarch relates that the Theſſalians put fifteen hundred Phocean hoſtages to death; the Phocæans having riſen and killed the Theſſalian governors and magiſtrates throughout all their towns. Vitiges king of the Oſtrogoths, having obliged the pope, ſenate, and people of Rome, to take an oath of fidelity, leaving four thouſand Goths for the defence of the city, ſet out for Ravenna, with ſeveral ſenators whom he took as hoſtages. Beliſarius in the mean time had made himſelf maſter of Rome, and reunited it to the empire, about ſixty years after it had been in the hands of the northern invaders. Vitiges marched a vaſt army to recover it, and was ſo incenſed at the frequent repulſes he met with from the conduct of Beliſarius, that pretending the Romans had forfeited their oath, all the noble hoſtages whom he had carried to Ravenna, fell victims to his reſentment. Likewiſe in 552, Teia, another Gothic king, who ſucceeded the famous Totila, ordered three hundred children of the principal Romans, whom his predeceſſor had taken with him as hoſtages, to be put to the ſword, without any other provocation than the ſuperiority of the Roman arms.

The inhabitants of the city of Glogow being beſieged by Henry V, emperor of Germany, and a breach made, they promiſed to ſurrender if not relieved within five days by the king of Poland, and the chief men of the city gave their children as hoſtages. Deputies were ſent to Boleſlaus, who made the greateſt efforts to come to their aſſiſtance, but finding the time too ſhort, he uſed both intreaties and menaces to prevail upon the deputies, to take advantage of the treaty for repairing their walls, and to ſacrifice their hoſtages to the general intereſt rather than baſely ſurrender, when Poland and its allies were up in arms for their deliverance. Accordingly, without diſtinction of ſex or rank, all fell to work with indefatigable vigour, ſo that when the emperor came on the day fixed to take poſſeſſion of the city, he found it prepared to receive him as an enemy; his troops being repulſed in the firſt aſſault, he ordered the young hoſtages to be forced up the ſcaling ladders in the front; but the love of their country, and obedience to their ſovereign, overcame nature; the beſieged inflamed with rage at this cruel device, ſpared not their own offspring to come at the enemy, even the mothers encouraged the fathers, and being unpractiſed in military

litary weapons, threw large ſtones and melted pitch on the aſſailants; the beſieged fought as in a phrenzy, and what the Imperialiſts had concluded would have been their ſafeguard, proved their deſtruction; they were beat off with ſuch a terrible ſlaughter, that the emperor broke up the ſiege.

Though, ſtrictly ſpeaking, upon a public breach of faith, hoſtages ceaſe to be ſuch, yet to put them to death ſeems a departure from equity, or at leaſt from humanity; moſt civilians determining that a man cannot pledge his life for another; and why ſhould they ſuffer for meaſures in which they are not concerned, and which, poſſibly, they diſapprove? This was the way of thinking of the brave eunuch Narſes, the terror of the Goths, when general to the emperor Juſtinian; no perſuaſions could prevail upon him to do harm to innocent hoſtages.

Though many civilians repreſent as lawful, the taking away of a hoſtages life in ſuch circumſtances; yet Grotius hopes that by *lawful*, they mean no more than not liable to puniſhment; otherwiſe they are wretchedly miſtaken. Examples of the vindictive and paſſionate, are no guides to the rational and merciful, who in all their meaſures temper the rigour of right with lenity. At the ſame time, I readily admit the propriety of puniſhing hoſtages, if they have antecedently been accomplices in any notorious illegality, have eluded their promiſe, or taken any fraudulent deſign in hand; or if the welfare of the ſtate abſolutely requires it as a terror to others. A further queſtion may ariſe; if neither Chriſtianity nor humanity allow the execution of an hoſtage, to what are they given, and whether that cuſtom ſhould not be abrogated among Chriſtians, as cruel and inſignificant? Many other ſecurities, conſiſtent with the moſt equitable and tender principles, might be ſubſtituted; as Eliſabeth, queen of England had *two* of the Hollanders, for pledges of her aſſiſting them againſt the Spaniards, and as thoſe towns were reſtored by her ſucceſſor, upon payment of a ſum of money; he could not offer to retain them. It is the concern of all ſtates to oppoſe any ſuch violation of public faith.

It is excellently ſaid by Grotius, 'all effuſion of blood, all military proceedings, the end of which is not to obtain right, or conclude a war, but merely vindictive or oſtentatious, are repugnant to Chriſtianity and humanity.' Salluſt, a pagan, beſtows his higheſt praiſes on thoſe commanders, whoſe victories were attended with the leaſt ſlaughter; and Demetrius is cenſured by Plutarch, as expoſing his ſoldiers rather for fame, than any real ſervice.

After all, the many inſtances of cruelty which occur in the pagan hiſtory, ſhould induce every one who pretends to philanthropy, to cloſe with that benign religion which has aboliſhed all ſuch cuſtoms, and implants in the hearts of its real profeſſors, every good and generous temper, ſo that there is ſomething rapturous only in the idea of a ſociety, living under the influence of Chriſtian principles.

Method to prevent MICE *from eating the* GRAIN *in Stacks or Mows, or Cheeſe, or other Articles uſually injured by theſe Vermin.*

MR. Macdonald, of Scalpa, in the Hebrides, having before ſuffered conſiderably by mice, put three or four ſtalks, with the leaves on, of wild mint, gathered in a field near a brook, at the bottom, near the center, and at the top of each ſtack, or mow, as it was raiſed, and never after had any of his grain conſumed. He then tried the ſame experiment with his cheeſe, and other articles uſually kept in ſtore, and often injured by mice, with equal effect, by laying a few leaves, green or dry, on the article to be preſerved. The experiment is eaſy to be tried, and if it prove generally effectual, it is a valuable preventive.

Farther PARTICULARS *of the* TRIAL *and* EXECUTION *of the late unfortunate* MARIE ANTOINETTE, *Queen of* France.

THE ſubſtance of the charges againſt the late Marie Antoinette, queen of France, as contained in the long act of accuſation (or indictment) preſented by the public accuſer of the criminal revolutionary tribunal, is as follows:

I. 'That in conjunction with the brother of Louis Capet, and the infamous exminiſter Calonne, ſhe ſquandered away, in a moſt horrid manner, the French finances, ſent innumerable ſums to the emperor, and drained the national treaſury.

II. 'That as well by herſelf, as by the aid of her counter-revolutionary agents, ſhe kept up a correſpondence with the enemies of the republic, and informed theſe enemies, or cauſed them to be informed, of all the plans of campaign determined on in the council.

III. 'That through her intrigues, and thoſe of her agents, ſhe formed conſpiracies and plots againſt the interior and exterior ſafety of France; and to that effect kindled a civil war in divers provinces of the republic; armed one citizen againſt another; and, by theſe means, ſpilled the blood of an incalculable number of citizens.

'And, finally, the widow Capet, in every reſpect immoral, and a new Agrippina, is ſo diſſolute, and ſo familiar with all crimes, that, forgetting her quality of mother, and the limits preſcribed by the law of nature, ſhe had not heſitated to proſtitute herſelf with Louis Charles Capet, her ſon; and, according to the confeſſion of the latter, ſhe had committed indecencies with him, the very idea and name of which ſtrikes the ſoul with horror.'

After the act of accuſation had been preſented, the queen underwent a private interrogatory; after which (being aſked if ſhe wiſhed to have counſel, and anſwering in the affirmative, but that ſhe knew not any) the tribunal appointed citizens Trouſon de Coudray and Chaveau de la Garde, to be her counſel. The witneſſes were then called in, and the trial, if ſuch it can be called, proceeded. We ſay, *if ſuch it can be called*, becauſe two eſſential principles of the Engliſh criminal juriſprudence, and which are certainly indiſpenſable principles of juſtice and equity, were in the caſe of this unfortunate princeſs, flagrantly violated. They are, firſt, that mere *hearſay* evidence cannot be admitted: and, ſecondly, that no queſtion can be put to a priſoner that tends to ſelf-crimination. For inſtance, with reſpect to the firſt, one Rouſſillod, a ſurgeon and cannoneer, depoſed, among other things, that the queen had tranſmitted to her brother (the late emperor Joſeph II.) immenſe ſums to enable him to ſupport the war againſt the Turks; and that *he* (the witneſs) *had this fact from a worthy female citizen, an excellent patriot, who was employed at Verſailles under the old government, and who was in the confidence of a favourite of the court.* Would an Engliſh judge admit ſuch evidence as this? Again, one René Millet, a ſervant maid, depoſed, that having, in 1788, lived as ſervant at Verſailles, ſhe aſked, one day, the late count Coigny, in a moment of good humour—'Will the emperor ſtill continue to wage war againſt the Turks? Surely that muſt ruin France, on account of the immenſe ſums the queen ſends her brother for that purpoſe, which muſt at leaſt amount to two hundred millions?'—'Thou art right enough,' anſwered the count, 'it has coſt already more than two hundred millions, and we are not at the end of it yet.' 'I further obſerve,' continued this witneſs, 'that *I have been informed by divers perſons*, that the priſoner had formed a plan to aſſaſſinate the duke of Orleans, &c.—Here a common ſervant maid ſtates that ſhe very familiarly put a queſtion, on a very delicate and important ſubject to a man of rank, who as familiarly anſwers her, and this anſwer is adduced as evidence! And yet neither of theſe two witneſſes could ſtate the fact as what they perſonally knew to be true, which was the only evidence to which the tribunal, in juſtice and equity, could attend. But one of the moſt extraordinary parts of this trial (for the whole is much too long, and we may add, too diſguſting and too little intelligible by an Engliſh reader, to be detailed at length, is what paſſed on the examination of Hebert, ſubſtitute of the procureur of the commune. This witneſs depoſed, that as a member of the commune of the 10th of Auguſt, he was charged with different important functions, which afforded him an opportunity to be convinced of the conſpiracy of

Antoinette; particularly, one day, in the Temple, he found a copy of the ritual belonging to her, in which was one of the counter-revolutionary emblems, repreſenting an inflamed heart pierced with an arrow, on which was written, *Jeſus miſerere nobis*. Another time, he found in the chamber of Eliſabeth, a hat, which was known to have belonged to Louis Capet. This diſcovery left him no room to doubt, that there were, among his colleagues, ſome men baſe enough to degrade themſelves ſo far as to be the ſervants of tyranny. He recollected, that Toulan had one day entered with his hat into the Temple, and had come out bareheaded, ſaying that he had loſt it. He added, that Simon having appriſed him that he had ſomething important to communicate, he went to the Temple, accompanied with the mayor and procureur of the commune; that they there received a declaration, on the part of young Capet, to this purport: that, at the period of the flight of Louis Capet to Varennes, La Fayette was one of thoſe who had moſt contributed to facilitate it; that they had, with this view, ſpent the night in the palace; that, during their reſidence in the Temple, the priſoners had, for a long time, been informed of all public tranſactions; and that a correſpondence was tranſmitted to them in clothes and ſhoes. Young Capet named thirteen perſons as being concerned in carrying on this correſpondence. In fine, young Capet, whoſe conſtitution became every day impaired, was ſurpriſed by Simon in practices deſtructive to his health, and, at his period of life, very uncommon: he aſked who had inſtructed him in theſe practices: he anſwered, that it was his mother and his aunt. From the declaration made by young Capet, in preſence of the mayor of Paris and the procureur of the commune, it appeared, that theſe two women had often made him ſleep between them, in which ſituation he had been accuſtomed to the moſt abominable indulgencies; and that from what he had ſaid, there was not even room to doubt but that the charge on this head, alleged in the act of accuſation, was true.

There is reaſon to believe that this criminal indulgence was not dictated by the love of pleaſure, but by the political hope of enervating the conſtitution of the child, whom they ſuppoſed deſtined to ſit on the throne, in order that they might acquire an aſcendency over his mind. In conſequence of theſe practices he was attacked with a rupture, which rendered the uſe of a bandage neceſſary, and ſince he has been removed from his mother his conſtitution becomes vigorous and robuſt.

The Preſident to the Accuſed. What have you to anſwer to the depoſition of the witneſs?

A. I have no knowledge of the facts, of which Hebert ſpeaks; I know only that the heart he mentions was given to my ſon by his ſiſter: with reſpect to the hat, it was a preſent to my ſiſter by her brother while alive.

Q. Did the adminiſtrators Michonis, Jobert, Marino, and Michel, when they came to you, bring any perſons along with them?

A. Yes, they never came alone.

Q. How many did they bring each time?

A. Frequently three or four.

Q. Were not theſe perſons adminiſtrators?

A. I do not know.

Q. Did Michonis, and the other adminiſtrators, when they came to you, wear their ſcarfs?

A. I do not recollect.

The witneſs Hebert was called upon to ſtate whether he was acquainted with the manner in which the adminiſtrators executed their functions. He anſwered that he was not exactly acquainted, but that he remarked on the occaſion of the declaration made by the accuſed, that the family of Capet, during their reſidence in the Temple, were informed of every thing that occurred in the city; they knew all the municipal officers who were called there every day by their duty, both their particular hiſtory, and the nature of their different functions.

Q. To the accuſed. Did not citizen Michonis bring along with him into the priſon an individual who let drop a pink, in which was encloſed a billet?

A. The fact is true.

Q. Who was the man who delivered to you this billet? Did you know him? What is his name? What were the contents of the billet? Did you anſwer it?

A. His name I do not recollect. The contents of this billet were, that he had been thrown into priſon, but had found means to extricate himſelf; that he offered me money; and that he would return the Friday following. I anſwered, by pricking upon a paper with a pin, that my guards never ſuffered me to be out of their ſight, ſo that I had no opportunity to write or communicate with any perſon.

Q. Why were you ſtartled at ſeeing this individual?

A Becauſe I was alarmed at the danger which he ran in getting into my priſon.

The tribunal was going to proceed to hear another witneſs, when one of the jury requeſted the preſident to demand of the accuſed to anſwer with reſpect to the crimes, the proof of which reſted on the declarations of the young Capet.

A. I remained ſilent on that ſubject, becauſe nature holds all ſuch crimes in abhorrence! Then turning with an animated air to the people—'I appeal to all mothers who are preſent 'in this auditory, is ſuch a crime poſſible.'

Perhaps nothing could have a more powerful tendency to convince an impartial public, that the queen was not really guilty of the political crimes laid to her charge, that this Hebert ſhould be allowed to declare, that one Simon *told him*, that young Capet *told him*—what was in itſelf incredible, what the child could ſcarcely be ſuppoſed to underſtand!

The examination of the witneſſes, and the occaſional interrogatories of the accuſed, being ended, the Public Accuſer entered into a long invective againſt her. Her two counſel acquitted themſelves of that duty, and ſolicited the clemency of the tribunal. They were heard with the moſt profound ſilence.

The Queen was then taken out of the hall.

Herman, Preſident of the Tribunal, now ſpoke, and ſummed up the evidence in the following manner:

'Citizens of the jury, the French nation, by its organ the public accuſer, has accuſed before the national jury, Marie Antoinette of Auſtria, widow of Louis Capet, of having been the accomplice, or rather inſtigatrix, of moſt of the crimes of which the laſt tyrant of France was found guilty; of having herſelf kept up a ſecret underſtanding with powerful foreign nations, eſpecially with the king of Bohemia and Hungary, her brother; with the ci-devant emigrant French princes, and traitorous generals; with having furniſhed the enemies of the republic with ſupplies of money, and of having conſpired with them againſt the external and internal ſecurity of the ſtate.

'A great example is this day given to the univerſe, and it will ſurely not be loſt upon the nations which inhabit it. Nature and reaſon, ſo long outraged, are ſatisfied at laſt, and equality is triumphant. A woman who lately poſſeſſed all the moſt brilliant appendages which the pride of kings and the baſeneſs of ſlaves could invent, occupies now, before the tribunal of the nation, the place which was occupied two days ago by another woman; and this equality ſecures impartial juſtice.

'This trial, citizens of the jury, is not one of thoſe where a ſingle fact, a ſingle crime, is ſubmitted to your conſcience and your knowledge. You have to judge all the political life of the accuſed, ever ſince ſhe came to ſit by the ſide of the laſt king of the French; but you muſt above all fix your deliberation upon the manœuvres which ſhe never ceaſed to employ, to deſtroy riſing liberty, either from within the kingdom, by her cloſe connexion with infamous miniſters, perfidious generals, and faithleſs repreſentatives of the people, or from without the kingdom, by cauſing the negotiation of that monſtrous coalition of the deſpots of Europe, which hiſtory holds up to ridicule for their impotence. In ſhort, by her correſpondence with the ci-devant emigrant French princes, and their agents.

'Had we wiſhed for an oral proof of all thoſe deeds, the priſoner ought to have been made to appear before the whole French nation. The material proof reſts in the papers ſeized in the abode of Louis Capet, enumerated in a report made to the national convention by Goheir, one of its members; in the collection of the juſtificatory pieces of the act of accuſation paſſed againſt Louis Capet by the convention. Laſtly and chiefly, citizens of the jury, the proof lies in the political events of which you have all been witneſſes and judges.

'If it were permitted to me, in fulfilling a limited office, to yield to emotions of humanity, we ſhould have invoked before the jury the manes of our brothers at Nanci, at the Champ de Mars, at the frontiers of La Vendee, at Marſeilles, at Lyons, at Toulon, in conſequence of the infernal machinations of this modern Medicis: we ſhould have brought before you the fathers, the mothers, the wives, the infants of thoſe unhappy patriots!—What do I ſay? Unhappy!—They have died for liberty, and faithful to their country! All thoſe families, in tears and deſpair, would have accuſed Antoinette of having ſnatched from them every thing that was moſt dear to them in the world, and the deprivation of which renders life inſupportable. In effect, if the ſatellites of Auſtrian deſpotiſm have broken in for a moment on our frontiers, and if they have there committed atrocities of which the hiſtory even of barbarous nations does not

furnish a parallel example; if our ports, our plains, and our cities, are sold or given up, is it not evidently the result of the manœuvres planned at the Tuileries, and of which Marie Antoinette was at once the instigatrix and the moving principle? These, citizen jurors, are the public events which form the mass of proof that overwhelm Marie Antoinette.

'With regard to the declarations which were made in bringing on this trial, and the debates which have taken place, there result from them certain facts, which come directly in proof of the principal accusation brought against the widow Capet. All the other details, given either as a history of the revolution, or in the proceedings against certain notorious personages, and some treacherous public functionaries, vanish before the charge of high treason, which weighs heavily upon Antoinette of Austria, widow of the ci-devant king.'

Then expatiating, at great length, on several parts of the evidence, the president thus continued: 'These are the questions which the tribunal has determined to submit to you:

I. 'It is proved that there existed machinations and private intelligences with powerful foreign states, and other external enemies of the republic; such machinations and intelligences tending to furnish succours in money, and to give them ingress into the French territory, for the purpose of facilitating the progress of their arms?

II. 'Is Marie Antoinette convicted of having co-operated with these machinations, and of having entertained those intelligences?

III. 'Is it proved, that there existed a plot or conspiracy to light up a civil war in the heart of the republic?

IV. 'Is Marie Antoinette convicted of having had a share in that plot and that conspiracy?'

The jury, after having deliberated about an hour, returned into the hall, and gave a verdict—*Guilty of all the charges laid in the indictment.*

The president then addressed the people as follows:

'If the citizens who compose this audience were not liberal men, and, consequently, capable of feeling all the dignity of their state, I ought perhaps to recal to their memory, that at the moment when the national justice is about to declare the law, reason and morality impose upon them the greatest silence, and forbid every mark of approbation: and that a person, of whatever crimes they may be convicted, and attainted by the law, is then entitled to pity and humanity.'

The queen being again brought in, the president said, 'Antoinette! hear the sentence of the jury.'

Fouquier, the public accuser, then spoke, and demanded that the accused should be condemned to die, conformably to the first article of the first section of the first head of the second part of the penal code, which is thus expressed:

'Every manœuvre or intelligence with the enemies of France, tending to facilitate their entrance into any part of the empire, whether it be to deliver up to them towns, fortresses, ports, or vessels, appertaining to France, or with furnishing them with succours in men, money, provisions, or ammunition, or to favour in any manner the progress of their arms on the French territory, or against our forces by sea or land, whether by corrupting the fidelity of the officers, soldiers, or other citizens, toward the French nation, shall be punished with death.'

And the second article of the first section of the first title of the second part of the same code is thus expressed:

'Every conspiracy and plot, tending to trouble the state by a civil war, in arming citizens against citizens, against one another, or the exercise of regal authority, shall be punished with death.'

The president called upon the accused to declare, whether she had any objection to make to the sentence of the laws demanded by the public accuser?

Antoinette bowed her head.

Upon the same demand being made of her defenders, Trouson spoke, and said, 'Citizen president, the declaration of the jury being precise, and the law formal in this respect, I announce that my professional duty with regard to the widow Capet is terminated.'

The president then pronounced the following sentence:

'The tribunal, after the unanimous declaration of the jury, in conformity to the law cited, condemns the said Marie Antoinette, called of Lorraine and Austria, widow of Louis Capet, to the penalty of death, her goods confiscated for the benefit of the republic, and this sentence shall be executed on the place of the revolution.'

When the queen heard her sentence read, she did not shew the smallest alteration in her countenance, and left the hall without saying a single word to the judges or to the people. It was then half past four

four o'clock in the morning, Oct. 16. She was conducted to the condemned hold in the priſon of the Conciergerie.

At five o'clock the general was beat. At ſeven, the whole armed force was on foot; cannon were planted upon the ſquares, and at the extremities of the bridges, from the palace to the ſquare de la Revolution. At ten, numerous patroles paſſed through the ſtreets. At half paſt eleven in the morning, Marie Antoinette was brought out of the priſon, dreſſed in a white *diſhabille*. Like other malefactors, ſhe was carried in a common cart to the place of execution. Her hair from behind was entirely cut off, and her hands were tied behind her back. Beſide her *diſhabille*, ſhe wore a very ſmall white cap. Her back was turned to the horſe's tail. During her trial, ſhe wore a dreſs of a black and white mixture. On her right was ſeated upon the cart the executioner; upon the left, a conſtitutional prieſt belonging to the Metropolitan church of Notre Dame, dreſſed in a grey coat, and wearing a bob wig. The cart was eſcorted by numerous detachments of horſe and foot. Henriot, Ronſin, and Boulanger, generals of the revolutionary army, preceded by the reſt of their ſtaff-officers, rode before the cart.

An immenſe number of people crowded the ſtreets, and cried Long live the Republic! The queen ſeldom caſt her eyes upon the populace, and beheld with indifference the great armed force of 30,000 men, which lined the ſtreets in double ranks. The ſufferings which ſhe ſuſtained during her captivity had much altered her appearance, and the hair on her forehead appeared as white as ſnow. She kept ſpeaking to the prieſt ſeated by her ſide. Her ſpirits were neither elevated nor depreſſed: ſhe ſeemed quite inſenſible to the ſhouts of *Vive la Republic!* When ſhe paſſed through the ſtreet called Rue St. Honorè, ſhe ſometimes attentively looked at the inſcriptions of the words *liberty* and *equality* affixed to the outſide of the houſes. She aſcended the ſcaffold with ſeeming haſte and impatience; and then turned her eyes with great emotion toward the garden of the Tuileries, the former abode of her greatneſs.

At half paſt twelve, the guillotine ſevered her head from her body. The executioner lifted and ſhewed the head from the four different corners of the ſcaffold. The ſpectators inſtantly cried, Long live the Republic! The corpſe was immediately after buried in a grave filled with quick lime, in the churchyard de la Madelaine, where her unfortunate conſort was in like manner interred *.

* Marie Antoinette, late queen of France, was the daughter of the emperor Francis I; who had ſucceeded his father, as duke of Lorraine; which duchy was ceded to France, and Tuſcany was ſettled upon him in lieu of it. While Francis was duke of Lorraine, he married the archduchess Maria Thereſa, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. The emperor, Charles, having no male iſſue, Maria Thereſa ſucceeded to his hereditary dominions; and, in 1745, her huſband Francis was elected emperor. Marie Antoinette was their eighth daughter, born at Vienna on the 2d of November 1755. She was married to the dauphin of France (the late king) on the 16th of May 1770. This marriage was attended with a very remarkable and melancholy circumſtance. On Thurſday, the thirtieth of May, the grandeſt fireworks that ever were known were intended to have been exhibited, and in part were ſo, in the ſquare of Louis XV, in honour of the marriage; but the diſaſter that followed daſhed all the pleaſure that could have been received from this moſt ſplendid ſpectacle. The aſtoniſhing multitude that had crowded to ſee the fireworks were blocked up on all ſides, except one narrow ſtreet, through which they muſt all paſs in order to diſperſe. Some obſtruction happening in that ſtreet, and the people not knowing the cauſe, took fright, and, every one preſſing forward to get away, the confuſion increaſed ſo faſt that one trampled over another, till the people lay in heaps; thoſe who were undermoſt ſtabbed thoſe who lay above them, in order to diſengage themſelves. The carnage was inexpreſſible. The accounts make the dead to amount to 1000, and the wounded to 2000 more. By ſome miſtake in the engineer, the apparatus took fire; many hundreds were precipitated into the river in endeavouring to eſcape the flames; and the ſcaffold broke down which was erected for ſpectators, by which many more were killed. The ſuperſtitious in France ſaid the affair was ominous. The dauphin, in the firſt tranſports of his grief, gave all the money allotted for his month's expences toward the relief of the ſufferers, and in this he was followed by the dauphineſs. His majeſty was alſo greatly affected, and iſſued orders, that no expence might be ſpared to ſuccour and aſſiſt the miſerable. Louis XV dying on the tenth of May 1774, the dauphin aſcended the throne, by the name of Louis XVI.

STATE

STATE PAPER.

Whitehall, October 29.

The following DECLARATION has been ſent, by his majeſty's command, to the Commanders of his Majeſty's fleets and armies employed againſt France, and to his Majeſty's Miniſters reſiding at Foreign Courts.

THE circumſtances, in conſequence of which his Majeſty has found himſelf engaged in a defenſive war againſt France, are known already to all Europe. The objects which his majeſty has propoſed to himſelf from the commencement of the war, are of equal notoriety. To repel an unprovoked aggreſſion, to contribute to the immediate defenſe of his allies, to obtain for them and for himſelf a juſt indemnification, and to provide, as far as circumſtances will allow, for the future ſecurity of his own ſubjects, and of all the other nations of Europe; theſe are the points for which his majeſty has felt it incumbent on him to employ all the means which he derives from the reſources of his dominions, from the zeal and affection of his people, and from the unqueſtionable juſtice of his cauſe.

But it has become daily more and more evident how much the internal ſituation of France obſtructs the concluſion of a ſolid and permanent treaty, which can alone fulfil his majeſty's juſt and ſalutary views for the accompliſhment of theſe important objects, and for reſtoring the general tranquillity of Europe. His majeſty ſees, therefore, with the utmoſt ſatisfaction, the proſpect, which the preſent circumſtances afford him, of accelerating the return of peace, by making to the well-diſpoſed part of the people of France, a more particular declaration of the principles which animate him, of the objects to which his views are directed, and of the conduct which it is his intention to purſue. With reſpect to the preſent ſituation of affairs, the events of the war, the confidence repoſed in him by one of the moſt conſiderable cities of France, and, above all, the wiſh which is manifeſted almoſt univerſally in that country, to find a refuge from the tyranny by which it is now overwhelmed, render this explanation on his majeſty's part a preſſing and indiſpenſable duty: and his majeſty feels additional ſatisfaction in making ſuch a declaration, from the hope of finding in the other powers engaged with him in the common cauſe, ſentiments and views perfectly conformable to his own.

From the firſt period when his moſt chriſtian majeſty Louis the XVIth had called his people around him, to join in concerting meaſures for their common happineſs, the king has uniformly ſhown by his conduct the ſincerity of his wiſhes for the ſucceſs of ſo difficult, but, at the ſame time, ſo intereſting an undertaking. His majeſty was deeply affected with all the misfortunes which enſued; but particularly when he perceived more and more evidently that meaſures, the conſequences of which he could not diſguiſe from himſelf, muſt finally compel him to relinquiſh the friendly and pacifick ſyſtem which he had adopted. The moment at length arrived when his majeſty ſaw that it was neceſſary for him not only to defend his own rights and thoſe of his allies, not only to repel the unjuſt aggreſſion which he had recently experienced, but that all the deareſt intereſts of his people impoſed upon him a duty ſtill more important; that of exerting his efforts for the preſervation of civil ſociety itſelf, as happily eſtabliſhed among the nations of Europe.

The deſigns which had been profeſſed of reforming the abuſes of the government of France, of eſtabliſhing perſonal liberty and the rights of property on a ſolid foundation, of ſecuring to an extenſive and populous country the benefit of a wiſe legiſlation, and an equitable and mild adminiſtration of its laws; all theſe ſalutary views have unfortunately vaniſhed. In their place has ſucceeded a ſyſtem deſtructive of all public order, maintained by proſcriptions, exiles, and confiſcations without number, by arbitrary impriſonments, by maſſacres, which cannot even be remembered without horror, and at length, by the execrable murder of a juſt and beneficent ſovereign, and of the illuſtrious princeſs, who, with an unſhaken firmneſs, has ſhared all the misfortunes of her royal conſort, his protracted ſufferings, his cruel captivity, his ignominious death.

The inhabitants of that unfortunate country, ſo long flattered by promiſes of happineſs, renewed at the period of every freſh crime, have found themſelves plunged into an abyſs of unexampled calamities; and neighbouring nations, inſtead of deriving a new ſecurity for the maintenance of general tranquillity from the eſtabliſh-

ment

ment of a wiſe and moderate government, have been expoſed to the repeated attacks of a ferocious anarchy, the natural and neceſſary enemy of all public order. They have had to encounter acts of aggreſſion without pretext, open violations of all treaties, unprovoked declarations of war; in a word, whatever corruption, intrigue, or violence could effect for the purpoſe ſo openly avowed of ſubverting all the inſtitutions of ſociety, and of extending over all the nations of Europe that confuſion which has produced the miſery of France.

This ſtate of things cannot exiſt in France without involving all the ſurrounding powers in one common danger, without giving them the right, without impoſing it upon them as a duty, to ſtop the progreſs of an evil which exiſts only by the ſucceſſive violation of all law and all property, and which attacks the fundamental principles by which mankind is united in the bonds of civil ſociety. His majeſty by no means diſputes the right of France to reform its laws. It never would have been his wiſh to employ the influence of external force with reſpect to the particular forms of government to be eſtabliſhed in an independent country. Neither has he now that wiſh, except in ſo far as ſuch interference is become eſſential to the ſecurity and repoſe of other powers.

Under theſe circumſtances, he demands from France, and he demands with juſtice, the termination of a ſyſtem of anarchy, which has no force but for the purpoſes of miſchief; unable to diſcharge the primary duty of all government, to repreſs the diſorders, or to puniſh the crimes which are daily increaſing in the interior of the country, but diſpoſing arbitrarily of the property and blood of the inhabitants of France, in order to diſturb the tranquillity of other nations, and to render all Europe the theatre of the ſame crimes and of the ſame misfortunes. The king demands that ſome legitimate and ſtable government ſhould be eſtabliſhed, founded on the acknowledged principles of univerſal juſtice, and capable of maintaining with other powers the accuſtomed relations and union of peace. His majeſty wiſhes ardently to be enabled to treat for the re-eſtabliſhment of general tranquillity with ſuch a government, exerciſing a legal and permanent authority, animated with the wiſh for general tranquillity, and poſſeſſing power to enforce the obſervance of its engagements. The king would propoſe none other than equitable and moderate conditions, not ſuch as the expenſes, the riſque, and the ſacrifices of the war might juſtify, but ſuch as his majeſty thinks himſelf under the indiſpenſable neceſſity of requiring with a view to theſe conſiderations, and ſtill more to that of his own ſecurity, and of the future tranquillity of Europe. His majeſty deſires nothing more ſincerely than thus to terminate a war which he in vain endeavoured to avoid, and all the calamities of which, as now experienced by France, are to be attributed only to the ambition, the perfidy, and the violence of thoſe, whoſe crimes have involved their own country in miſery, and diſgraced all civilized nations.

As his majeſty has hitherto been compelled to carry on war againſt the people of France collectively, to treat as enemies all thoſe who ſuffer their property and blood to be laviſhed in ſupport of an unjuſt aggreſſion, his majeſty would ſee with infinite ſatisfaction the opportunity of making exceptions in favour of the well-diſpoſed inhabitants of other parts of France, as he has already done with reſpect to thoſe of Toulon. The king promiſes, on his part, the ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities, friendſhip, and (as far as the courſe of events will allow, of which the will of man can diſpoſe) ſecurity and protection to all thoſe who, by declaring for a monarchical government, ſhall ſhake off the yoke of a ſanguinary anarchy, of that anarchy which has broken all the moſt ſacred bonds of ſociety, diſſolved all the relations of civil life, violated every right, confounded every duty, which uſes the name of liberty to exerciſe the moſt cruel tyranny, to annihilate all property, to ſeize on all poſſeſſions, which founds its power on the pretended conſent of the people, and itſelf carries fire and ſword through extenſive provinces, for having demanded their laws, their religion, and their lawful ſovereign.

It is then in order to deliver themſelves from this unheard of oppreſſion, to put an end to a ſyſtem of unparalleled crimes, and to reſtore at length tranquillity to France, and ſecurity to all Europe, that his majeſty invites the co-operation of the people of France. It is for theſe objects that he calls upon them to join the ſtandard of an hereditary monarchy, not for the purpoſe of deciding, in this moment of diſorder, calamity, and public danger, on all the modifications of which this form of government may hereafter be ſuſceptible;

ceptible; but in order to unite themſelves once more under the empire of law, of morality, and of religion; and to ſecure at length to their own country external peace, domeſtic tranquillity, a real and genuine liberty, a wiſe, moderate, and beneficent government, and the uninterrupted enjoyment of all the advantages which can contribute to the happineſs and proſperity of a great and powerful nation.

LONDON GAZETTES.

From the London Gazette, Saturday, November 2.

Whitehall, November 2.

BY intelligence received from the earl of Yarmouth, dated Brumpt, Auſtrian head quarters, October 20, it appears, that on the morning of the 19th, general Wurmſer, having received information that Haguenau had ſurrendered to the advanced corps under general Mezaroes, he immediately put the bulk of his army into motion, and arrived that night, a few hours after it had been evacuated by the enemy, who had made ſo precipitate a retreat, as to neglect breaking down the wooden bridges over which the artillery was to paſs. That, on the 18th, the French encamped on the right bank of the Zorn, a ſmall river which runs through Brumpt, but on perceiving ſome interval between general Mezaroes' advanced corps, conſiſting of about 8000 men, and the other columns of the army, they croſſed the river, and attacked him, with their whole force, in the evident expectation of turning his flank, and cutting him off from the reſt of the army. The action laſted ſeven hours; but upon perceiving the reſt of the Auſtrian army move forward, the French recroſſed the river, and evacuated the heights and town of Brumpt, of which the Auſtrians took poſſeſſion. The loſs on the part of the French is eſtimated at about 800 men, and that of the Auſtrians nearly half that number, in killed and wounded. That the prince of Waldeck had advanced with his corps from Seltz, and marched along the banks of the Rhine. That he had compelled the ſurrender of Druxenheim, and, after having driven in the garriſon of Fort Louis, with ſome loſs, had inveſted the place. That, in the courſe of the night, the French had abandoned their former poſition on the Zorn, and retreated under the cannon of Straſbourg. That general Wurmſer was at the diſtance of nine Engliſh miles from that place.

In addition to the accounts already publiſhed of forcing the lines of Weiſſembourg and Lauterbourg, it appears, that the Auſtrian army had between 700 and 800 men killed and wounded; and that the loſs of the French amounted to between 3000 and 4000 men killed, from 500 to 600 priſoners, and 26 pieces of cannon, with their ammunition waggons and horſes. The retreat of the French, on this occaſion, was greatly favoured by a thick fog.

Whitehall, Nov. 2. Diſpatches from ſir James Murray, adjutant general to the forces under the command of his royal highneſs the duke of York, of which the following are extracts, were received by the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal Secretary for the home department, on Wedneſday laſt.

Extract of a letter from ſir James Murray, bart. to Mr. ſecretary Dundas, dated Tournai, Oct. 24, 1793.

I have the honour to inform you, that the enemy, made upon the 21ſt inſt. an attack upon the advanced poſts of the camp at Menin, particularly thoſe of Werwick and Halſoin: They were every where repulſed; but the day following they renewed the attack with great violence, and at laſt ſucceeded in gaining poſſeſſion of Werwick.

Menin being by this means expoſed, lieutenant-general Erbach, who commanded there, found it neceſſary to evacuate the town, and to retire with his corps upon Courtray. This corps was compoſed of Auſtrian and Hanoverian troops. The particulars of their loſs are not yet come to my knowledge, but I underſtand that it amounts, in killed and wounded to near 300 men.

The enemy likewiſe attacked the troops poſted at the camp of Ciſoing upon the 21ſt, 22d, and 23d, but they were repulſed each day, with loſs, having had upon the 22d near 400 men killed and taken. The Inniſkillings and the 16th regiment of light dragoons behaved with great ſpirit upon this occaſion. The attacks of the enemy were chiefly directed againſt the poſts of Nomain upon the left, and Willem upon the right, of both of which they at different times gained poſ-

ſeſſion, but were again driven from them by reinforcements ſent from the camp.

This day the enemy attacked the poſt of major-general Kray at Orchies. No further particulars are at preſent known, than that they have been repulſed with the loſs of five pieces of cannon.

Extract of a letter from ſir James Murray, dated Tournai, Oct. 25.

Accounts have been received that the enemy advanced upon the 22d upon Furnes, which was abandoned at their approach. They then proceeded againſt Nieuport, but recourſe having been had to the inundations, of which the country near that place is ſuſceptible, they were obliged to retreat.

Lieutenant-general Wurmb, upon the loſs of Menin, left his poſition by Dixmude and Fort Knocke, and is now poſted at Thouroute, where he covers Bruges, and communicates with the corps near Courtray.

It is his royal highneſs' intention to attack the enemy near Menin upon Monday next. General Walmoden will command the troops employed upon this ſervice, which will be thoſe under lieutenant-general Wurmb, now at Thouroute, and the corps which lately occupied the camp at Menin. The reſt of his royal highneſs' forces will co operate in different ways towards this attack; and ſhould it be ſucceſsful, there is reaſon to hope that upon this frontier every thing may be re-eſtabliſhed upon its former footing.

Whitehall, Nov. 2. A diſpatch was laſt night received from ſir James Murray, adjutant general to his majeſty's forces under the command of his royal highneſs the duke of York, by the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, of which the following is a copy.

Camplin, Oct. 29, 1793.

Sir,

I had the honour of informing you, in my laſt diſpatch, of his royal highneſs' intention to make every poſſible effort for the protection of Auſtrian Flanders, which ſeemed to be in imminent danger from the attempts of the enemy upon the whole frontier of that province.

Conſiſtent with this intention his royal highneſs determined, to attack the enemy at Menin, upon the 28th inſt. General Walmoden, to whom the execution of this deſign was to be entruſted, went upon the 26th to Courtray, to take command of the corps which had formerly occupied the camp at Menin. Lieutenant-general Buſche took the command of that which had been poſted at Mouſcron, but which had fallen back to Warcoing. The attack was to be made upon different points by theſe corps, in conjunction with that of lieutenant-general Wurmb, which lay at that time in the neighbourhood of Thouroute.

Upon the morning of the 27th his royal highneſs marched with the troops which were encamped before Tournay, to take up the poſition he had formerly occupied between Barſieux and Cyſoing, and which had been left ſome days before. Different poſts, which the enemy had eſtabliſhed upon the Marque, were driven back. A piquet of ſix officers and 150 men, which had been poſted at the village of Saingain, retreated acroſs the plain towards Lezennes; they had nearly reached the laſt mentioned village when a ſquadron of the 2d dragoon guards, led on by major Crauford, aide de camp to his royal highneſs, advancing with rapidity, gained their right flank, and charged them with ſo much vigour and ſucceſs that not a ſingle man eſcaped; 104 priſoners were taken, and the reſt killed upon the ſpot. The ſquadron of the 2d dragoon guards had only two men killed, and one man wounded. The other ſquadron of the queen's dragoon guards, two ſquadrons of the royals, and a diviſion of Auſtrian light dragoons, came up in the purſuit.

In the mean time the enemy had made progreſs in another part of the country. They had attacked Nieuport, and paſſed, though only with a ſmall body, the canal of Ypres at Shoorebeck. In conſequence of this lieutenant-general Wurmb had fallen back upon Ghiſtel, in order to cover Bruges and Oſtend.

This change of general Wurmb's poſition rendered abortive the plan which had been formed for the attack of Menin upon the 28th. His royal highneſs therefore, ſtill keeping that important object in view, ſent a re-inforcement of three battalions to lieutenant-general Buſche, who had by this time advanced again with his corps to Mouſcron, and diſlodged the enemy from that poſt, of which they had taken poſſeſſion; and it was determined that the attack of Menin ſhould be made on the 29th, by the corps of general Walmoden and general Buſche; the former advancing directly upon the town of Menin, the latter upon the right bank of the Lys, againſt the village and heights of Halluin.

In

In order to favour this enterprise, by drawing the attention of the enemy to another quarter, his royal highness sent, upon the evening of the 28th, two battalions of Austrian infantry, and some companies of light troops, with two twelve-pounders and two howitzers, under the command of major-general Werneck, and two battalions of British Infantry, (the flank battalion and that of the 3d regiment of guards) with one squadron of the 7th and one of the 15th light dragoons, with two twelve-pounders and two howitzers likewise, to attack Lannoy, which the enemy had entrenched, and occupied with 1500 men.

Major-general Abercrombie commanded this detachment; and he had orders to expose the troops as little as possible, but to confine the attack to a cannonade, until the enemy should be driven from their post. This plan had the desired success. After resisting some time the heavy and well-directed fire of the British and Austrian artillery, which was gradually advanced to within a very small distance of the town, the French gave way, retiring in great disorder, part of them towards Lisle and part towards Roubay. They were pursued with great spirit by lieutenant-colonel Churchill, at the head of two squadrons of light dragoons, who killed and wounded near 100 of them, and took 59 prisoners. Several others were killed and taken by a party of Austrian infantry, who entered the town. There were taken in all about 150 prisoners, and five pieces of cannon, beside several tumbrils and baggage waggons. The killed are supposed to have amounted to between 200 and 300.

In point of numbers the loss upon our side has been very inconsiderable; but unfortunately capt. Sutherland, of the royal engineers, an officer of acknowledged merit, was killed upon this occasion. Though not called upon to be present at the attack, he had been induced by his zeal to accompany the detachment. I am sorry to add, that lieutenant Thornton, of the Artillery, has lost his arm. The Austrians had eight or ten men killed and wounded.

About the conclusion of the affair, accounts were received from general Walmoden, that the enemy had evacuated Menin the preceding night, and that they had the appearance of intending to give up their attack upon Ypres.

The march of his royal highness from Englefontaine, and the subsequent movements of the troops under his command, seemed to have induced the enemy to abandon the enterprises in which they had engaged on this side of Austrian Flanders, and in which they had been, to a certain degree successful.

By accounts from Nieuport of the 28th, the French had summoned that town, and, upon lieutenant-colonel de Wurmb's refusal to surrender, they had erected batteries against it; there seemed, however, to be reasonable grounds to expect that the place would hold out: I understand that the attack made there, upon the 24th, was a very severe one; the 53d regiment having had lieutenant Latham and ten men killed, and captain Ferguson and 18 wounded. I have the honour to be, &c.

JAMES MURRAY.

Return of killed and wounded of the British detachment at the attack of Lannoy, commanded by major gen. Abercrombie, Oct. 28, 1793.

1 captain, 1 rank and file killed; 2 lieutenants, 7 rank and file, wounded.

Names of Officers killed and wounded.

Royal engineers. Captain Sutherland killed, lieutenant Rutherford wounded.

Royal artillery. Lieutenant Thornton wounded.

Whitehall, November 2. The following dispatches from general sir Charles Grey, K. B. and rear-admiral Macbride, were yesterday evening received at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Ostend, Oct. 29, 1793. three o'clock, P.M.

Sir,

I had the honour of writing to you yesterday morning from Deal, to inform you of my arrival there, and of my intention immediately to embark for this place. We got under way between ten and eleven o'clock, and about half past seven in the evening came to an anchor in Nieuport roads. In consequence of the accounts I received there from captain Murray of the state of that place, and the force brought against it by the French, I judged it necessary immediately to dispatch major-general Dundas to Ostend, with orders to take under his command the 42d regiment and four companies of light infantry, and to march, with all possible expedition, to the support of the garrison; at the same time sending colonel

Syms to Nieuport, to give the commander notice of my arrival, and of the intended re-inforcements.

The enemy kept up a conſtant fire during the greateſt part of the night, which was anſwered by the garriſon, and diſtinctly ſeen from the Quebeck. At about two this morning it became more violent, and continued with great briſkneſs on both ſides. When we paſſed Nieuport, about ten, we ſaw major-general Dundas on his march, within two miles of the place, and I have this inſtant received a letter from him, announcing his arrival. He ſays, he finds every thing as well as he could expect; that the enemy threatened much, kept up a conſtant fire, and had laſt night carried one of the towers, within 1700 yards of the place: He has made a requiſition of ſeveral articles neceſſary to the defence of the place, which I have ordered to be forwarded to him immediately. With the force now on foot, aſſiſted by the inundation, I hope it may be preſerved, and the further progreſs of the French on this ſide checked. Notwithſtanding the conſtant fire kept up by the enemy, I am happy to inform you that the loſs of the garriſon has hitherto been inconſiderable, but I have yet received no regular returns.

The ſervice has derived the greateſt benefit from the zeal and activity of rear-admiral Macbride, captain Murray, and the naval officers under his command.

A ſupply of ammunition, of which the garriſon was much in want, was this morning ſent from the fleet; and about 100 ſeamen, under captain Rogers, have been landed, to aſſiſt in working at the batteries. Every commendation is due to the gallant defence made by colonel Wurmb, and the garriſon under his command. I have the honour to be, &c.

C. GREY.

Wedneſday morning, ſeven o'clock,

The departure of the cutter which will carry this diſpatch, having been delayed, I have an opportunity of adding, that I have received accounts from major-general Dundas, dated ten o'clock laſt night. The fire from the enemy had been violent during the whole day, but had ceaſed for near three hours. The garriſon ſtill maintained all their poſts, and the troops remained all night under arms on the ramparts. I am juſt ſetting off for Nieuport, in order to judge myſelf, on the ſpot, of the further meaſures which it may be neceſſary to take for its defence.

Oſtend, Oct. 30, 1793.

Sir,

My laſt diſpatch announced to you the ſituation of the garriſon of Nieuport, as far as I was informed of it, to the time of my departure from that place this morning. On my road thither I was met by ſeveral perſons, with the agreeable intelligence that the French were retiring, which was confirmed on my arrival. They began their retreat in the night, and a part only of the rear-guard was viſible at day break this morning. They returned along the road to Dunkirk, ſetting fire to every thing in their way.

I went with major-general Dundas to viſit the poſts which they occupied, and, from the extent of their encampment, I ſhould imagine that their numbers could not have been leſs than was repreſented to us, about 8,000. What loſs they may have ſuſtained during the ſiege I have no means of eſtimating: our's, as I have already had the pleaſure of informing you, was very inconſiderable. I now incloſe you a regular return of that of the 42d and 53d regiments; that of the Heſſians I have not been able to learn accurately, but it is not greater in proportion. The French have left behind them four twenty-four pounders and two mortars, as well as a great number of ſhot, ſhells, and intrenching tools. The whole were ſecured, and a great part brought into the town before I left it. I have already ſpoken in commendation of the gallant behaviour of colonel de Wurmb and the garriſon under his command; I cannot, however, help adding, upon a more exact knowledge of their ſituation when firſt attacked, that the ſafety of Nieuport is owing to their courage and perſeverance in its defenſe, with means very diſproportionate to the force brought againſt them. The artillery, under captain Bothwick, with the 53d regiment, whoſe loſs has been the greateſt, have been very much diſtinguiſhed; and I think it only an act of juſtice to mention, in terms of the higheſt approbation, major Matthews, whoſe long ſervices, and particular exertions on this occaſion, will, I hope, recommend him to his majeſty's notice. I feel alſo that much is due to the zeal and intelligence with which major-general Dundas undertook and executed the ſervice entruſted to him after his arrival at Nieuport, as well as to colonel Syms, and captain Rogers, and the officers, marines, and ſeamen from the fleet. I have the honour to be, &c.

C. GREY.

Return

Return of killed and wounded of the Britiſh at the ſiege of Nieuport.

Total.—1 ſubaltern, 12 rank and file killed, 1 captain, 2 ſerjeants, 53 rank and file wounded.

Names of officers killed and wounded.

Lieutenant Latham, of the 53d regiment, killed; captain Fergusoe, of ditto, wounded. 1 ſerjeant, of the 42d regiment, dead of his wounds.

Quebeck, Oct. 31, off Nieuport.

Sir,

I beg leave to acquaint you, that I ſailed from the Downs on Monday, at eleven, P.M. and the following evening anchored off Nieuport between ſeven and eight. The enemy were firing upon the town from their guns and mortars. I found capt. Murray with the ſquadron I had detached to their aſſiſtance; from him I learnt that the garriſon ſtood in great need of artillery, powder, and ammunition, and were very weak in point of artillerymen; 60 ſeamen were ſent from the ſhips, under the command of Mr. Thomas Gibbs, acting-lieutenant of the Triton, whoſe conduct has been highly meritorious; a party of 40 ſeamen and marines from the Quebeck, with a large ſupply of powder and ammunition, was ſent on ſhore in the morning, under the direction of captain Rogers, who requeſted to command the naval detachment: to his active zeal and ability the ſervice is much indebted. Lieutenant Clements, who at preſent commands the Albion armed ſhip, was kept in readineſs to force their way into the harbour, which was in poſſeſſion of the enemy, when that meaſure was deemed neceſſary. The detachment from Oſtend were ſeen marching along the Strand in the morning, and ſoon entered Nieuport. The enemy, however, rendered our intentions uſeleſs, for they abandoned their enterpriſe in the night. I refer to ſir Charles Grey's letter for the detail of the military operations, reſpecting the ſecurity of this important poſt. Mr. Gibbs is the bearer of this diſpatch, to whom I refer you for particulars. I have the honour to be, &c.

JOHN MACBRIDE.

P. S. I have the pleaſure to add, the Auſtrians have driven the French out of Furnes this morning.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, November 4.

Whitehall, Nov. 4. The following diſpatch was this morning received from ſir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highneſs the duke of York, by the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

Camphin, Oct. 30, 1793.

Sir,

I have the honour to inform you of the ſucceſs of an attack upon Marchiennes, which, by order of his royal highneſs, took place laſt night.

Eight battalions were put under the command of major-general Kray for this enterpriſe. They marched at midnight from Orchies in three columns, each column headed by two officers and 60 volunteers, ſupported by 300 men. Theſe were not permitted to load. The reſt of the troops of the different columns, with their cannon, followed at ſome diſtance. A detachment from the corps of major-general Otto, poſted by Denain, marched about the ſame time, formed in four columns in ſimilar order, that the town might be attacked at once upon all ſides. The latter troops were diſcovered by the enemy's out-poſts, and prevented from penetrating by the oppoſition which they met with. Thoſe under general Kray, one column of which advanced upon the high road from Orchies, and the two others upon the left of it, got, about two o'clock in the morning, within a ſhort diſtance of the town before they were perceived.

The volunteers at the head of the column, which was upon the road, fell in with a piquet about 200 yards from the gate, which they ſurpriſed, killed the greater part of it, and purſued the reſt ſo cloſely that they entered the place along with them. The troops in the town made little reſiſtance. After being driven from the market-place, where they had at firſt aſſembled, they retreated to a convent near it. They there propoſed terms of capitulation, which gen. Kray conſented to, as they ſurrendered priſoners of war, with the ſole condition of the officers being permitted to wear their ſwords.

There are 1629 priſoners, officers included, moſt of them troops of the line. There are likewiſe 12 pieces of cannon, and 22 or 23 tumbrils taken. There are ſuppoſed to have been about 300 of the enemy killed. The loſs of major-general Kray's corps is between 70 and 80 killed and wounded. The loſs upon major-general Otto's ſide is unknown, but it is not imagined to be conſiderable. I have the honour to be, &c.

JAMES MURRAY.

From

From the London Gazette, Tuesday, November 5.

Whitehall, Nov. 5. A letter, of which the following is an extract, was last night received from sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highness the duke of York, dated Camphin, Nov. 1, 1793.

Some of the light troops made yesterday an attack upon the French post at Ors and Catillon sur Sambre, in which, with very little loss, they killed near 400 of the enemy, took about 200 prisoners, and two pieces of cannon.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, Sunday, Nov. 10.

Admiralty-office, Nov. 9, 1793. The dispatches, of which the following are copies and extracts, were this day received by Philip Stephens, esq; from the right hon. vice-admiral lord Hood, commander in chief of his majesty's ships and vessels in the Mediterranean.

Victory, Toulon Road, Oct. 6. 1793.

Sir,

I have the honour to desire you will be pleased to offer to the lords commissioners of the admiralty, my sincere congratulations on a very brilliant and complete victory obtained over the enemy the 1st inst. upon the heights of Pharon. The British and Piedmontese troops composed the column under lord Mulgrave, and led the way; but his lordship gives full credit to the spirit and exertion of the troops of every nation, and is loud in the praise of the Neapolitans, who greatly distinguished themselves. I transmit, for their lordship's information, a duplicate of the order his lordship gave out next morning, with an account of the killed and wounded. The action was short, but hot. The enemy had upon the heights from 1800 to 2000 men, the flower of the Eastern army; not a fourth part of which, we are well informed, ever returned to head-quarters, for what did not fall by the bullet or bayonet, broke their necks in tumbling headlong over the precipices in their flight. In the night of the 30th, a very important post, above Fort Pharon, was surprised and taken; the re-possessing of which being of so much consequence, an attempt was immediately resolved upon; and, in order to enable lord Mulgrave, general Gravina, and governor Elphinstone, with the respective columns under their commands, to go out with the greater force, I undertook the care of Toulon and Fort La Malgue, and had a sufficient number of good men on shore, within two hours after receiving notice of the sad disaster.

I am sorry to inform their lordships of that gallant and able officer, general Gravina, being wounded in the leg; and, although there is no doubt (as Dr. Harness assures me, who has the care of him) of his doing perfectly well, he will probably be confined some time, as the ball is lodged between the two bones.

His majesty's ship Colossus returned to me, on the 24th, from Cagliari, and brought 350 good troops, and I expect 800 more from Conti in three or four days. The second division of Neapolitans consisting of 2000, arrived last night; and the last 2000 were to leave Naples yesterday. His Sicilian majesty has manifested the greatest readiness and zeal in fulfilling the treaty, and has confided his ships and troops solely to my disposal, which his majesty has made known to me from under his own hand.

I have good reason to expect general O'Hara will be here in a very few days, with 12 or 1500 men from Gibraltar: he will be welcome to us. I have the honour to be, &c.

HOOD.

'Brigadier-general lord Mulgrave takes the earliest opportunity to return his most sincere thanks, and to offer the tribute of his warmest approbation to captain Monerief and the British officers and soldiers, as well as to colonel Faras, lieutenant-colonel the chevalier de Revel, to major St. Etienne, and the officers and soldiers of the Sardinian troops who composed his column, and were most immediately under his command in the attack of the enemy's post yesterday. Lord Mulgrave is at a loss to express his sense of the intrepid spirit with which the officers and men encountered danger, and of the patience and fortitude with which they suffered fatigue, hunger, thirst, and the unavoidable inconveniencies attending the difficult and pressing service to which they were suddenly called.

'Lord Mulgrave begs also to take the opportunity of giving his tribute of applause to the daring and judicious conduct, and to the important and effectual services rendered by serjeant Moreno, of the Spanish marine corps, who, accompanied by three brave soldiers of his corps, with infinite skill and gallantry, traced the line

of

of march of the right column to within piſtol ſhot of the enemy's advanced guard. Lord Mulgrave begs alſo to be allowed, with great reſpect, to bear teſtimony of the able conduct of general Gravina, brigadier Skirds, brigadier-general Pignatelli, and to the gallantry of the officers and ſoldiers under the command of thoſe generals, and moſt particularly to the Neapolitan grenadiers, whoſe well-directed fire, and ſteady approach on the left of the enemy's poſition, tended ſo much to the ſucceſs of the day.

'Lord Mulgrave has received ſuch reports from governor Elphinſtone, of the ſteady, active, and gallant conduct of the Britiſh officers and ſoldiers and ſeamen, of the Spaniſh officers and ſoldiers, and of the regiment of royal Louis, under the command of colonel count de Porto, of the regiment of Majorca, who acted on the ſide of Fort Pharon, and were not immediately within his view, as induces him to beg their acceptance of his ſincere thanks, for the timely and effectual diverſion they made in favour of the other attack.

'Lord Mulgrave begs leave, on this occaſion, to expreſs his grateful ſenſe of the friendly and important aſſiſtance he has received, in many difficult moments, from Mr. Graham; and to add his tribute of praiſe to the general voice of all the Britiſh and Piedmonteſe officers of his column, who ſaw, with ſo much pleaſure and applauſe, the gallant example which Mr. Graham ſet to the whole column in the foremoſt point of every attack.

'Lord Mulgrave aſſures his fellow-ſoldiers of the different nations which compoſe the army of Toulon, that the general good conduct of which he was yeſterday a witneſs, can never be effaced from his memory.

MULGRAVE, brig. gen.'

Return of the killed, wounded, and miſſing of the Britiſh, at the taking of Pharon redoubt, the 1ſt of Oct. 1793.

One ſerjeant, 1 private killed; 1 captain, 1 ſubaltern, 3 corporals, 27 privates, wounded; 2 privates miſſing.

Names of the officers wounded. Captain O'Dogherty, 69th regiment; lieutenant Carter, of the marines.

The enemy's loſs is ſuppoſed to have been about 1500 killed, wounded, and taken priſoners.

Extract of a Letter from Vice-Admiral Lord Hood, to Mr. Stephens, dated Victory, Toulon Road, Oct. 6, 1793.

Sir,

I beg you will be pleaſed to make known to the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that, upon receiving a preſſing requeſt from general Paoli for aſſiſtance, and informing me at the ſame time that even the appearance of a few ſhips would very eſſentially ſerve him, provided it ſhould not be judged expedient to make an attack by them on any of the forts, I therefore determined to ſend three ſhips of the line and two frigates to him; and, as the ſeaſon was too far advanced for a ſecond rate to go on that coaſt, I eſtabliſhed capt. Linzee as a commodore, appointed capt. Woodley his captain, and gave an order to lord Amelius Beauclerk to command the Nemeſis.

Alcide, in the Gulf of St. Florenze, October 1, 1793.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inform your lordſhip, that being joined by the Ardent on the 21ſt ult. and it being deemed practicable to make an attempt, by ſea, upon the tower and redoubt of Fornilli (a poſt at the diſtance of about two miles oppoſite the town of Florenze) I immediately gave the neceſſary orders for the ſquadron to act, whenever the wind was ſufficiently ſteady for that purpoſe.

On the 24th the Courageux joined, with proviſions from Leghorn; and, on the night of the 27th the launches of the ſquadron cut out a veſſel, which has ſince been converted into a gun boat.

Having made ſeveral attempts (between the 21ſt and 30th ult) to attack the above poſts, which were always fruſtrated by the wind dying away as ſoon as I drew into the Gulf; and experience having pointed out the improbability of the wind's blowing ſteady in a gulf of ſuch depth, and ſurrounded by mountains of conſiderable height, it was deemed expedient to execute my intention the following morning, by warping the Ardent, during the night, into a ſituation from whence ſhe could not only annoy the redoubt, but cover the approach of the ſquadron.

Captain Sutton placed his ſhip with as much judgment and preciſion as if the ſervice had been executed during the day; and at half paſt three A. M. opened a fire, which was kept up without intermiſſion till near eight o'clock.

By four o'clock the Alcide was in a ſituation to open her battery on the enemy's works; but being too cloſe to the Ardent, and a flaw of wind filling the ſails, endan-

gered her ſhooting on the rocks, before ſhe could be anchored with ſecurity. The ſails were inſtantly thrown aback, and boats were employed, towing, to extricate her from this difficulty. Capt. Matthews, obſerving the Alcide's ſituation, very gallantly ſhot under her ſtern to cover her, and occupied the ſtation I had intended to anchor in. As the ſituation of the Courageux prevented the Alcide from opening her fire, except at intervals, I ordered capt. Wolſeley to carry out warps, to move us into a more eligible ſituation; which ſervice was executed with great alacrity, and a ſpirited fire again opened on the enemy's poſts.

Although a cloſe and powerful cannonade had been kept up by the ſquadron till a quarter before eight, no viſible impreſſion was made; and capt. Sutton having reported the Ardent was much damaged, and that, in his opinion, there was no proſpect of ſucceſs; and capt. Woodley (who had been on board the Courageux, to enquire into the ſtate of that ſhip) having brought a ſimilar report from capt. Matthews, who, as well as capt. Wolſeley and himſelf, agreed in the above opinion, I judged it adviſeable to make the ſignal for diſcontinuing the attack.

The Alcide is not materially damaged in her maſts or rigging, but the Ardent and Courageux have ſuffered conſiderably in both, from being expoſed to the raking fire of the town of Florenze, though every information had aſſured me the diſtance from that place was too great for guns to have any effect.

Our failure is not only to be imputed to the falſe intelligence reſpecting the range of cannon from the town of Florenze, but to the want of ardour on the part of the Corſicans, who had faithfully promiſed to ſtorm the poſts on the land ſide, though they never made the ſmalleſt movement to effect that ſervice during the action. I encloſe a liſt of the killed and wounded, and of the artillery oppoſed to the ſquadron; and am happy in teſtifying my warmeſt approbation of the gallant manner in which every officer and man employed on this occaſion conducted himſelf. I am ſorry to find Mr. Sheills, firſt lieutenant of the Courageux, is among the number of killed, and have appointed Mr. Peter Hunt, a very deſerving young man, to act as junior lieutenant of that ſhip, till your lordſhip's pleaſure is known. I have the honour to be, &c.

ROBERT LINZEE.

A liſt of the killed and wounded on board the different ſhips of the ſquadron under my command.

Ardent. Mr. John Martin, midſhipman, 13 ſeamen, killed; 17 ſeamen wounded.

Alcide. 9 ſeamen wounded.

Courageux. Mr. Ludlow Sheills, firſt lieutenant, 1 ſeaman killed; Mr. William Henry Daniel, ſecond lieutenant, 12 ſeamen, wounded.

Alcide, Oct. 1. ROB. LINZEE.

Liſt of artillery employed in the different poſts acting againſt the ſquadron.

In the redoubt of Fornilli. 4 twenty-four pounders, 2 mortars.

On the tower of Fornilli. 2 eight pounders.

On a height near ditto. 1 four pounder.

At the town of Florenze (ſaid to be out of range). 9 twenty-four pounders, 4 mortars.

Victory, Toulon Road, Oct. 13, 1793.

Sir,

I have the honour to deſire you will acquaint the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that a very ſucceſsful ſortie was made in the night of the 9th, and herewith tranſmit captain Brereton's account of it to lord Mulgrave. But the enemy has ſince erected another battery, about two hundred yards to the ſouthward of the one deſtroyed, from which they have fired heavy cannon and ſhells all yeſterday, and are now doing ſo, but as yet have done us very little miſchief. I have the honour to be, &c.

HOOD.

Fort Mulgrave, Hauteur de Graſſe, October 9, 1793.

My Lord,

Agreeable to your lordſhip's orders and arrangements made for carrying them into execution yeſterday morning, at half paſt twelve o'clock at night, we moved from this poſt; and, having formed a junction in the bottom with the marines and Piedmonteſe from the poſt of Ceper, we marched off from our right in one column, in order to inſure the greater regularity in a night attack: our march to the top of the height, where the new erected batteries of the enemy had been conſtructed, was performed with all poſſible order and expedition, the troops obſerving the greateſt ſilence, by which, with the aid of the French deſerter, who anſwered the ſentinels of the enemy as we paſſed, our advanced

vanced party, arrived at the entrance into their first battery, perfectly undiscovered: the first sentry having been put to death, the advanced party, composed of the grenadiers and light infantry of the line of British, under the command of captain Stewart of the 25th regiment, very gallantly rushed in, and put every man to the bayonet that opposed them.

The remainder of the enemy that could get off retired to their second battery, and, though most rapidly pursued, made a sort of stand; but the greater part of the detachment by this time having taken different positions of attack, the enemy were soon routed in all quarters, and, in a quarter of an hour after, we made ourselves masters of all their batteries on this height, and the ordnance mounted thereon. In the first battery they had mounted two twenty-four pounders, on garrison carriages; on the second battery they had one fine brass twenty-four pounder, mounted on a high travelling carriage, and two smaller guns; and in a third battery was mounted two thirteen inch mortars, with a great deal of ammunition, suitable for their different pieces of ordnance. On the road we found one light travelling six-pounder.

Immediately at the enemy retired and ceased firing, I posted the troops round the centre of the hill, and placed guards at the leading avenues to it, while lieutenant Sorocold of the navy, with the sailors, &c. under his directions, set to work in destroying these different pieces of ordnance, by spiking the touch-holes of the guns and mortars, and ramming balls into the guns, breaking up their carriages, and destroying their ammunition. Had it been possible to have carried off any part of the above guns, &c. it should have been done; but from the precipices we were necessarily obliged to descend, and the broken narrow paths we had occasion to pass, in order to avoid exposing our lives by day-light to the fire of two heavy batteries of the enemy at the windmills, I found it was impracticable even to carry off the field piece; neither did I think it right to hazard remaining with the detachment (which did not exceed 408) on the height where the batteries were erected, there being no cover in the rear, and the force of the enemy immediately in our neighbourhood on heights above us equal to 12 or 1300 men, which might have cut us off before your lordship could have sent a re-enforcement to sustain us from Toulon.

From these considerations, as soon as lieutenant Serocold reported to me that he had rendered the different guns and mortars unserviceable, having collected our killed and wounded, we marched back from our left about half past four in the morning, and reached this post about six o'clock. Our loss on this enterprise, of killed and wounded, is herewith enclosed, in a return, which, considering the strength of the position we attacked, and that it was defended by three hundred of the enemy's best troops, is very inconsiderable; but, at the same time, is much to be lamented, as they were of the advanced guard of British, and the best of our troops. The loss of the enemy is far more considerable; for we perceived in different places between twenty and thirty of them killed; but, from reports since from deserters, we learn they had upward of fifty killed and as many wounded. We took a captain Lamatalie of the Chasseurs du Burgoyne, a lieutenant Chevalier of the fourth regiment of artillery, and twenty-three men, prisoners, whom we brought with us to this post.

I have the pleasure to inform your lordship, that, in the operation of the march and attack, all the foreign troops employed co-operated most cordially. I have the honour to be, &c.

ROBERT BRERETON, Captain.
Commanding 2d battalion of British.

British corps. 1 corporal, 3 privates; killed; 1 corporal, 6 privates; wounded.

Whitehall, Nov. 9. The following dispatch was this day received at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Toulon, October 10, 1793.

Since my last dispatch of the 3d of October *, the enemy had completed three batteries opposite to the Hauteur de Grasse, one at La Hauteur des Moulins, and two to the southward on the Hauteur de Reinier. Vice-admiral lord Hood being apprehensive that the fleet might suffer some inconvenience from the batteries de Reinier; and information of the situation of the enemy, and of the approaches to the batteries, having been received from an intelligent deserter, it was determined to make a sortie from the Hauteur de Grasse,

* Lord Musgrave's dispatch of the 3d of this month has not been received.

on the 8th inſtant at night, for the purpoſe of deſtroying the enemy's batteries.—A detachment was ordered, compoſed of the whole of the Britiſh troops on that poſt, amounting to 225 rank and file, under the command of captain Brereton of the 30th regiment, the Spaniſh grenadiers company of the regiment of Hibernia. Fifty men commanded by brevet lieutenant-colonel Nugent, who alſo commanded the ſortie, a company of Piedmonteſe grenadiers, of fifty men, and fifty Albaneſe Neapolitan troops. This corps marched at half paſt twelve o'clock at night, and were joined (at a point agreed upon) at one o'clock in the morning, by the poſt of Les Sablettes, of a captain, and fifty Britiſh marines, and a captain, and fifty Piedmonteſe chaſſeurs; the advanced guard of fifty Britiſh grenadiers, light infantry, and ten grenadiers of Hibernia, under the command of captain Stewart of the 25th regiment.

Lieutenant Knight of the 11th regiment, and a ſubaltern officer of Hibernia, (whoſe name has not been reported to me) ſurpriſed the enemy's poſt, attacked the firſt battery with their bayonets, put the whole guard to flight, and purſued the enemy with great ſlaughter into the ſecond battery, ſupported by the whole detachment, which formed on the height, and remained till lieutenant Serocold of the navy, with a party of ſeamen, had taken meaſures to render the artillery of both batteries unſerviceable, and had deſtroyed all the ammunition: the ground between Graſſe and the Hauteur de Reinier was ſo interſected with ravines and walls as to render it impoſſible to bring off the mortars or guns.

I encloſe a liſt of the pieces of ordnance which were deſtroyed, and a return of the killed and wounded of his majeſty's troops. The whole loſs fell upon the advanced guard; the officers and ſoldiers of which diſtinguiſhed themſelves very particularly by their enterpriſe, activity and ſpirit. The good order and ſteadineſs of the whole detachment deſerves the higheſt praiſe; as well as the judicious conduct of the march, concerted by lieutenant-colonel Nugent of the regiment of Hibernia, and captain Brereton of the 30th regiment under the orders of the Spaniſh colonel O'Neale, who commands at the Poſt de Graſſe.

Deſerters, who came in yeſterday, report, the enemy calculated their loſs, in killed, wounded, and miſſing, at near 200 men; and that one of the mortars had ſplit in their endeavouring to clear it. I have the honour to be, &c.

MULGRAVE,
Acting brigadier-general.

Return of the killed and wounded of the Britiſh troops, on the night of the 8th of October 1793.

Total. 4 rank and file, killed; 7 rank and file, wounded.

(Signed) MULGRAVE,
Acting brigadier-general.

Ordnance and Ammunition deſtroyed.

Three braſs twenty-four pounders; two ditto ſixteen pounders; one ditto four pounder; two ditto thirteen inch mortars; two barrels of gunpowder; two boxes of cartridges; thirty filled thirteen inch ſhells.

From the London Gazette, November 12.

Whitehall, Nov. 22. By a diſpatch from the earl of Yarmouth, dated the 28th of October, it appears, that on the 25th of that month, the right wing of the enemy was completely routed, with the loſs of fourteen cannon, a great quantity of military ſtores, two howitzers, all the camp equipage, and an important poſition at Wanzenau, of which general Wurmſer immediately took poſſeſſion: that the Auſtrians were attacked on every ſide on the 27th, but that the enemy was compelled to retreat; and that the loſs of the latter on the two days was computed at 3000 killed, wounded, and taken.

From the London Gazette, November 16.

Whitehall, Nov. 14. The diſpatch of which the following is an extract, was this morning received at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

Sir, Toulon, Oct. 3.

In my diſpatch of the 24th of September, I had the honour to inform you, that the enemy had been more active than previous to that period; they occaſionally cannonaded our different poſts, and had approached bodies of men to various points, to attract our attention. On the 30th of September, at night, they entered upon a daring and deſperate project, that met with a moſt unaccountable ſucceſs, which fortunately was not of long duration.

The

The poſt of Faron being the point at which the enemy determined to make an attempt to render themſelves maſters of Toulon, they carried their deſign into execution on the night of the 30th of September. The picquet of ſixty men, being driven from the Pas de la Maſque about day-break, retired to the redoubt of Faron, which they found abandoned by the Spaniſh garriſon that had been placed in it. The enemy ſome time after took poſſeſſion of the redoubt, and of the whole ſummit of this almoſt inacceſſible mountain. By the poſſeſſion of the redoubt of Faron their communication was open with La Valette, and with La Garde, where the head quarters of general Gardane are eſtabliſhed; from both which places they received conſiderable reinforcements. The fort of Faron, which is below the redoubt, having made the ſignal of being preſſed by the enemy, and in want of immediate ſuccour, governor Elphinſtone added captain Torriano, with ninety-two men of the 30th regiment, to the garriſon of that poſt.

At about ſeven in the morning of the 1ſt of October, the report came to Toulon, that the enemy were in poſſeſſion of the whole ſummit of the mountain of Faron. The abſolute neceſſity of an immediate attack of this poſt being obvious, the moſt practicable means of regaining the ſummit of the mountain, in the face of an enemy, who were hourly receiving reinforcements, and who were prepared for their defence, became the only ſubject of diſcuſſion. Admiral Gravina, brigadier-general Squierdo of the Spaniſh troops, brigadier-general prince de Pignatelli, commanding the Neapolitan troops, lieutenant-colonel chevalier de Revel, governors Goodall, Elphinſtone, and myſelf, having aſſembled at the government houſe, and having conſulted intelligent perſons acquainted with the poſſible acceſſes to the mountain on the ſide of Toulon, it was determined to make the attempt on the weſtern ſide. The troops of the garriſon having been aſſembled on the parade during the time of our deliberation, I detached captain Beresford of the 69th regiment, with fifty men, to Fort Faron, to cooperate under the command of governor Elphinſtone, in caſe any opportunity ſhould offer of making a diverſion on the ſide of the redoubt of Faron, in favour of our main attack, if we ſhould be ſo fortunate as to reach the ſummit of the mountain, which is 1718 feet above the level of the ſea.

The Britiſh troops upon guard at the gate of the town having been relieved, I was enabled to collect 250 Britiſh rank and file, to which I added 140 chaſſeurs and 163 grenadiers of the Piedmonteſe troops (the remainder being diſperſed in diſtant poſts.) This corps compoſed the column under my command, deſtined to aſcend the face of the mountain from the fort of Grand St. Antoine. (I had alſo ordered 500 Neapolitan troops of the regiment de Bourgogne to join my column; but, from the difference of language, ſome miſtake occurred in the delivery of the orders, and thoſe troops did not join me.) The column of admiral Gravina, which took its route toward the Vallon de Valbourdin to aſcend by that paſs, was compoſed of two companies of Piedmonteſe chaſſeurs, 183 Spaniſh rank and file, 400 Neapolitan grenadiers, and a detachment of 100 men of the regiment de Bourgogne; brigadier-generals Squierdo and Pignatelli went with this column. The two columns marched from Toulon at eight o'clock. At the redoubt of Grand St. Antoine I formed the troops under my immediate command in alternate hundreds of Britiſh and Piedmonteſe, directing them to keep in ſmall platoons, as nearly in a line as poſſible during their aſcent, and to form to the firſt party that ſhould arrive at the ſummit. An advanced party of 200 of the enemy appeared at the top of the mountain, and gave their fire at a great diſtance, retiring immediately, and allowing the troops to gain the height with no other obſtacle than that which the rugged and almoſt perpendicular acclivity preſented; the labour and fatigue of the aſcent being conſiderably increaſed by the great heat of the day. The column of general Gravina gained the top of the mountain ſoon after us, without having met with any reſiſtance. Captain Moncrief, who led the right diviſion of my column, puſhed acroſs the mountain, and poſſeſſed himſelf of the Pas de la Maſque, which had been abandoned by the enemy. The top of the mountain of Faron is interſected by a ſucceſſion of tranſverſal heights, of ſteep aſcent from the weſt, and riſing ſucceſſively to the eaſternmoſt extremity of the mountain, where the redoubt of Faron is placed. We found the enemy drawn up on the front of this laſt ridge. The rock to the north, on the right of the poſition taken by the enemy, ends in a precipice above the Vallon de Favieres; the ground which lay between the right of the enemy and the column

under my command is a low ridge, forming the narrow head of a deep valley, which deſcends to the ſouthward, widening itſelf by a gradual turn to the eaſtward, ſo as to form a ſteep ſide to the left flank of the enemy's poſition, and ending on the flat ſummit of an interior ridge of the mountain, directly above the town of Toulon.

The enemy were formed in a line on the front of the eminence, and within muſket ſhot of our poſition: in front of the right of the enemy's principal line, and on the creſt of the ridge which forms the head of the valley, they had an advanced guard of about fifty men; in the rear of their right flank, which did not reach up to the precipice, a body of about 200 men were placed on echellon; a conſiderable body was placed on potence behind the left of their line; and in front of their left flank was placed an advanced guard, ſimilar to that on the right; in the rear, half way between the redoubt and the firſt line, a ſtrong column was placed in reſerve; and the parapet of the redoubt was lined with men. The poſt of the enemy commanded very conſiderably every part of the poſition which we were obliged to occupy. The left column, under my command, arrived firſt in preſence of the enemy. I placed the greateſt part of it, under cover of a riſing ground, behind the narrow creſt of the valley over which I was to paſs, when the attack ſhould be made. The column of general Gravina being ſoon after alſo in preſence of the enemy, he formed his line on a height which extended beyond the left of the enemy's poſition, and was ſeparated from the height on which I had taken poſt by a branch of the great valley, running to the weſtward, and forming a dip between the poſts occupied by our reſpective diviſions. I immediately ſent notice of our being in preſence of the enemy (by an officer, who was obliged to make a conſiderable circuit) to governor Elphinſtone, who was at fort Faron.

A briſk fire, begun by the advanced poſts of the enemy, took place at this time between them and general Gravina's line, and a fire alſo commenced on the ſide of Fort Faron by the corps under the command of colonel del Porto, againſt the potence (or return line) of the enemy's poſition, which could not, however, at that time, produce its effect, and was ſoon after very judiciouſly diſcontinued. As I could plainly perceive from the poſt I occupied that no impreſſion could be made from a fire acroſs the deep part of the valley, and that there was a defect in the diſpoſition of the enemy's left, I went to the right to communicate my obſervations to general Gravina; and it was then agreed that the corps under the command of that general ſhould deſcend, by its right, into the valley, and march, under cover of the aſcent on the left of the enemy, to attack them on that flank, which they had injudiciouſly placed upon the extreme ſummit of the hill, ſo as not to have the command of the whole deſcent, as they might have had, by placing themſelves a little below the brow. It was agreed alſo, that the left column, under my command, ſhould endeavour to attract the attention of the enemy during this movement, and that when general Gravina ſhould have attained a certain point, I ſhould move forward, and the general attack be made. On my return to the left, (general Gravina having already began his movement) I produced my whole force to the view of the enemy. The operation anſwered to our utmoſt wiſh. The enemy marched reinforcements to the right of their line, and appeared in expectation of an immediate attack from my column: during this period general Gravina proceeded down the valley, and came unperceived up the ſide of the hill occupied by the enemy; the line of march round this ſteep and rocky aſcent being explored, with infinite intrepidity and judgment, by ſerjeant Moreno of the Spaniſh marines, and three ſoldiers of his corps, to within piſtol ſhot of the enemy's line. The whole creſt of the mountain of Faron being a hard grey rock, without vegetation, and in ſome parts broken into ſharp and looſe pieces, which render walking very difficult, the march of general Gravina's column was neceſſarily ſlow: as ſoon as he had got to the point agreed upon, the Britiſh of my column, led by captain Moncrief of the 11th regiment, and preceded by Thomas Graham, eſq. of Balgeroon, (a gentleman of independent fortune, who was attracted to Toulon by the extraordinary event of its being in our poſſeſſion, to whoſe abilities on many occaſions here, and to whoſe diſtinguiſhed and exemplary gallantry on this occaſion, the ſervice has been infinitely indebted) and the Piedmonteſe chaſſeurs, led by lieutenant-colonel chevalier de Revel, advanced in two columns, ſupported by the Piedmonteſe grenadiers, under colonel the comte de Forax, the ridge being too narrow to admit of a line. A very heavy fire from the greateſt

greatest part of the enemy's line checked our progress for a short period at somewhat less than half the way between the ground from which we had advanced and the enemy's post. Here a continued fire was kept up between the enemy and the British and Piedmontese troops, under every disadvantage on our part of a most exposed and confined situation. The column of general Gravina in the mean time advanced in excellent order, under cover of the hill; the two companies of Piedmontese chasseurs, with the Neapolitan grenadiers and Spanish troops, advancing with a regular progress, and well-supported fire, toward the left of the enemy's line, while the detachment from Fort Faron, under colonel comte del Porto, recommenced their attack, which they made a real one, instead of a mere diversion, as at first intended. At this instant the advanced part of general Gravina's column having nearly gained the brow of the hill, I perceived the left of the enemy's line begin to waver, and crowd together, and ordered the British and Piedmontese under my command to rush forward, which they did with the utmost spirit and alacrity, under a heavy and galling fire of the enemy, which, however, was of very short duration, for the whole line of the enemy, with their different corps of reserve, (400 of their troops having abandoned the redoubt before the conclusion of the action) were thrown into confusion, and the rout became general; several were killed in the pursuit, but a very considerable number indeed were destroyed by pressing each other over the precipice in their flight; seventy-five of their dead were collected, without descending into the valley, to which they fell from the precipice: an officer and sixty prisoners were taken; and, by accounts since received from deserters, but one quarter of their original number have rejoined their forces. The most moderate calculation upon the accounts of the prisoners and deserters, states their numbers to have been from 1800 to 2000 men, all troops of the line, and the flower of La Bar's army. Our loss has been inconsiderable, compared with the difficulty and hazard of the enterprize; I have to regret the loss of lieutenant the chevalier Fabar, of the Piedmontese chasseurs, a gallant, active, and intelligent young officer, who was killed at the commencement of the first attack made by my column. The whole army heard with regret that general Gravina, in the course of his able and spirited exertions at the head of the Neapolitan grenadiers, received a wound in the leg, which obliged him to retire from the field; I am happy, however, to add, that the wound is not likely to be attended with any serious consequences: his place was ably supplied by the courage and conduct of brigadier-general chevalier Squierdo and prince Pignatelli. I inclose a list of the killed and wounded of the different nations; the chief loss has fallen upon the column under my command, from the very exposed situation in which the attack was necessarily made, and where the British and Piedmontese troops justified the mutual confidence which each seemed to repose in the steady support of the other. Indeed, sir, I should do injustice were I to particularize any corps or any nation, where all were so equally meritorious, not only in the intrepid firmness with which the whole of this brave body of men encountered the dangers of a difficult and almost desperate attempt, but for the patient fortitude, also, with which they bore hunger, thirst, and fatigue, the troops having received only a small portion of bread at the time they marched from out of the town, and being (from the want of necessary supplies at Toulon) without canteens, no officer or soldier had a drop of water to refresh him during the space of twelve hours, in a laborious march up precipices supposed inaccessible, and over-rugged rocks, exposed to the heat of a burning sun, reflected strongly by the nature of the ground. I can only say, that the mutual esteem and applause, which the troops of the different nations so strongly manifest toward each other, is the most honourable panegyric that can be bestowed upon them. I am, &c.

MULGRAVE,
Acting-brigadier-general.

[The return is a duplicate of that sent by lord Hood, page 383.]

I enclose a copy of the account I received from governor Elphinstone, of the attack made to the eastward from Fort Faron.

October 6.

Last night a reinforcement of 355 Piedmontese troops arrived from Sardinia. The second division of Neapolitan troops, consisting of 2000 men, is arrived in the harbour.

MULGRAVE,
Acting brigadier-general.

La

La Malgue, Oct. 4.

My Lord,

In conformity to the plan fixed on for our joint operations, I went up to Fort Faron, and, by ſhewing the head of different columns of the troops, kept the enemy conſtantly jealous of an immediate attack on the right, and kept up a well-directed fire from three twelve-pounders on the redoubt: but it was not only my own opinion but that of all the officers commanding corps, that a direct attack on a work ſo ſituated and full of men was impracticable; I therefore ordered four parties, of ſixty men each, to be ready to climb up the hill the moment general Gravina and your lordſhip ſhould advance on the top of the mountain, and a column of two hundred to follow and ſupport them, without firing until they ſhould arrive at the ſummit, and a party to turn the hill lower down on the right, to cut off or impede the retreat, and all the guns of the fort to fire about fifty yards in front of the troops, and to ſtop the moment I ſhould make a ſignal. This plan was admirably executed, and, I hope, produced the beſt effect; Conde del Pereſta, colonel of the regiment of Majorca, diſtinguiſhed himſelf much in conducting the attack. Captains Torriano of the 30th, and Beresford of the 69th, had infinite merit for the intrepid manner they led their men up an almoſt inacceſſible mountain, under a ſevere fire. The commandant of the Neapolitan troops, and major Heuſtain of the regiment of Royal Louis, were not leſs diſtinguiſhed on this occaſion, and the whole behaved with exemplary firmneſs. Lieutenant Alexander of the navy, and captain Dexter of the marines, performed moſt material ſervices by the well-directed fire from guns on the enemy's troops and works. I have the honour to be, &c.

G. K. Elphinstone.

Whitehall, Nov. 15. By letters from vice-admiral lord Hood and brigadier-general lord Mulgrave to Mr. ſecretary Dundas, dated Toulon, the 24th and 27th of laſt month, brought by captain Cook of the royal navy, it appears, that lieutenant-general O'Hara, appointed by his majeſty governor of that garriſon and its dependencies, had arrived on the laſt mentioned day from Gibraltar. It alſo appears that the firſt battalion of the royals, the 18th regiment, and a battalion of the royal artillery, has arrived at Toulon with general O'Hara; and that no event of conſequence had occurred. That the enemy continued to work at ſome diſtance from Toulon, but that they had not opened any new batteries, excepting a ſmall one of two eight pounders, and a mortar above Fort Pomet; which, it was expected, would be ſilenced by ſome heavy guns which were to be brought againſt it.

That intelligence had been received of the capture of Lyons, from which it was expected that the enemy would receive conſiderable reinforcements.

From the London Gazette, November 23.

Whitehall, Nov. 20. The diſpatches, of which the following are extract and copy, (which had not been received when the laſt accounts were publiſhed) were yeſterday received at the office of the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

Extract of a Letter from the Right Hon. Lord Mulgrave, to Mr. Secretary Dundas, dated Toulon, Oct. 18, 1793.

On the 14th of October, at eleven o'clock in the morning, I perceived the army of general Carteaux, to the weſtward of Toulon, to be formed in line, and advanced from the hills toward the redoubt of Malbouſquet. The garriſon of Toulon (leaving the neceſſary guards and a ſmall detachment to ſecure the tranquillity of the town) was marched out, to the number of about 3000 men, to take a defenſive poſition between the redoubts Malbouſquet and St. Antoine, and behind the river Neuve, a deep and dry canal lying north and ſouth in front of thoſe redoubts. Three bridges, which croſſed the canal on the roads leading to Brouſſan, Marſeilles, and the village of Six Fours, had been broken by my orders ſoon after my arrival at Toulon. In this poſition we had not any view of the enemy, who were concealed by intermediate hills between their line, and the plain occupied by the garriſon of Toulon. I detached a captain, with ſeventy Britiſh, and thirty Piedmonteſe chaſſeurs, to a riſing ground (the Hauteur des Arennes) beyond the river Neuve, to diſcover the movements of the enemy, with orders to remain there till I ſhould call them in, if they ſaw no conſiderable body; but to return immediately if the enemy appeared in force, and on no account to engage in any way with the enemy, ſo as to oblige me to march to their ſupport, as it was not

not my intention to make any attack, or to come to action beyond the river Neuve; the ſmallneſs of our numbers, the impoſſibility of carrying our field artillery acroſs the canal, and the certain information I had received that the enemy had numerous batteries on the ſtrong ground which they occupied, determined me to wait their attack (if they intended one) behind the river Neuve, and under the protection of the redoubts on the flanks of our poſition.

While the patrole of ninety men proceeded to the hill pointed out to them, I was employed in forming the line of Britiſh and Piedmonteſe, and two battalions of Neapolitans, Meſſabia and royal Naples: brigadier generals Squierdo and Pignatelli having gone to the left to place the remainder of the Neapolitans and the Spaniſh troops, and to order a patrole (ſimilar to that which I had ſent out) to a hill, the Hauteur des Gands, in front of the left of our poſition. Before the line was completely formed, I heard the patrole of Britiſh engaged in a heavy fire with the enemy, and ſaw ſmall parties retreating: I ſent immediately the whole of the Piedmonteſe chaſſeurs to ſupport the patrole and bring them off. The appearance of this reinforcement had the effect of animating the advanced ſoldiers of the Britiſh, who, in ſpite of the remonſtrances of their officers, preſſed forward upon the enemy. The Piedmonteſe followed the example; and, as I found the whole detachment were advancing upon the enemy, I was obliged to march out with 200 Britiſh, three companies of the regiment de Piedmont, and half of each of the regiments of Neapolitan troops, leaving the remainder of my wing of the army to guard our poſition, and to check the enemy if they ſhould preſs upon us on our return. The patrole had puſhed on to a conſiderable diſtance, and had driven in all the advanced parties of the enemy, before I could bring them off, which, however, was effected with no further loſs than that which they had ſuſtained in the raſh but ſpirited enterpriſe of the ſoldiers, which obliged their officers to follow them to a diſtance of a mile and a half beyond the river Neuve. The patrole on the left, with which brigadier generals Squierdo and Pignatelli had proceeded, conſiſting of about 800 men, had gone forward near a mile to the Petite Garenne, and in ſight of the intrenchment which the enemy had thrown up on the road to Oliоulles; as this party had kept up a continued fire on the advanced corps of the enemy, I apprehended they might be in want of ammunition to make good their retreat; and having regained La Hauteur des Arennes with my whole corps, I detached 100 Britiſh, 100 Piedmonteſe, and one of the half battalions of Neapolitans, to aſſiſt their retreat, who found them preparing to return to our line. The enemy, in all probability, expected an attack from us, which prevented their quitting their poſt to bring their whole force upon our ſmall detachments, which had imprudently ruſhed forward. Night coming on, the enemy (having probably loſt ſeveral men from the vivacity with which they were preſſed) retired to their camp without attempting any attack. The garriſon marched back to Toulon at about ten o'clock at night.

I have the honour to incloſe you a return of the killed and wounded in this ſkirmiſh, in which I have only to regret the too great impetuoſity of the troops of the patrole, but have every reaſon to applaud the judicious conduct of lieutenant-colonel chevalier de Revels, and of captain Wemyſs and lieutenant St. George, of the 11th regiment, under the circumſtances which obliged them to go to ſo hazardous a diſtance from our poſt of defence.

On the 15th in the morning the unfortunate affair of Cape Le Brun took place: I ſend you a copy of governor Elphinſtone's report of this action to vice-admiral lord Hood.

As ſoon as the report came to me of Cape Brun being attacked, and requiring ſuccour, I ordered the garriſon piquet to turn out immediately, and the remainder of the troops to get under arms, and ſent the report I had received to the general officers commanding the foreign troops. Before the piquet of 100 men had got beyond the gate of the town, a report came of our troops having been repulſed from Cape Brun; that they had retired into Fort La Malgue; and that the whole army of general La Poype had been marched from La Garde for the attack of Cape Brun, and were at that time in poſſeſſion of it.

We marched out of the gate d'Italie as ſoon as the garriſon could be collected under arms, conſiſting of the ſame numbers as the day before, with eight field-pieces and two eighteen-pounders, with the addition of 60 Spaniſh dragoons of 160 which landed on the 12th inſtant, the remaining horſes not being yet fit for ſervice.

Having reconnoitered the ſituation of the

the enemy, I found they had abandoned Cape Brun, and had formed their whole force farther to the eaſtward, on the Hauteur Le Pradel, with their left covered by the Caſtle St. Marguerite, which has two twelve-pounders pointed to the land-ſide; their field-pieces were diſtributed along the front of their line. It occurred to me that the moſt ſafe and effectual mode of diſlodging them from their ſtrong poſt would be to march immediately forward, under protection of the guns of our forts, on the ſide of Mount Faron, to proceed toward La Vallette, and ſtrike off to the Hauteurs des Thouars, about a mile to the eaſtward of La Vallette, and commanding La Garde at ſomething more than a quarter of a mile diſtance from that village. It was my intention to occupy Thouars and La Garde, by which we ſhould command the whole plain and the two great roads, one leading to Hieres, and paſſing to the eaſtward of La Garde, the other paſſing through La Vallette and leading to Souliers. Generals Squierdo and Pignatelli being of the ſame opinion with me, we proceeded on the road to La Vallette, leaving 140 men with two eighteen-pounders in that village (under the protection of the guns of Fort Faron) to maſk the Vallon de Favieres, and prevent the enemy from ſending reinforcements by that paſs from their poſts at Tounis and Le Reveſt. At the commencement of our march, the enemy expected an attack, and drew up their force; as we proceeded, they appeared in ſome degree of hurry and confuſion, and at length quitted their poſt to march toward La Garde. Unfortunately, from an error of the guide, the Spaniſh troops, which led the column, were carried beyond the point at which they ſhould have gained the Hauteurs de Thouars; and when the rear diviſion of the column, compoſed of the Britiſh and Piedmonteſe troops, which was to have formed the left of the line, arrived at the foot of that hill, we found the advance formed with their right to the Hauteurs, and their left extending toward La Vallette. I immediately marched the Britiſh and Piedmonteſe troops to the top of the Hauteurs de Thouar, taking the right of our poſition; the Spaniſh and part of the Neapolitan troops came up on our left; Brigadier-general Pignatelli remaining with 350 men to keep up the communication with the corps poſted at La Vallette. It was with great regret that I perceived the enemy (who had preſſed their march rapidly, entering La Garde at the moment we poſſeſſed ourſelves of the Hauteurs de Thouars. By the activity and exertions of col. Minichini of the Albaneſe Neapolitan corps, and captain Collier of the Britiſh artillery, we got our field-pieces to the top of the hills, through very ſteep and difficult paſſages. The enemy made various movements, but without attempting any thing more than a cannonade from La Garde, which we returned, and diſmounted one of their guns. When night ſet in, they began to move with their artillery toward Hieres. I ſent forward a patrole, under capt. Moncrief of the 11th regiment, conſiſting of 100 Britiſh troops, a company of Piedmonteſe grenadiers, and the grenadier company of the Spaniſh Swiſs regiment of Betchar, to find whether they had evacuated La Garde. This patrole was fired upon by a ſtrong rear guard, poſted in vineyards and in the houſes of the village, which cover the ſides of a ſugar-loaf hill, the top of which is crowned by an old caſtle. The main object of our movement having been obtained, by the retreat of the enemy from the ſituation they had occupied in the morning near St. Marguerite, it would have been highly imprudent to have ſacrificed any part of our ſmall force, in the attack of a ſtrong village, which we muſt of neceſſity have abandoned next morning. The troops having been much fatigued the day before, and having been left by the miſmanagement of the perſons charged at Toulon with the ſupply of proviſions) without any food till ten o'clock at night, it was at that hour determined to march back into the town.

Return of the killed, wounded and miſſing, of the Britiſh, on the 14th of Oct. 1793, near Malbouſquet.

Two rank and file killed; 4 rank and file wounded; 1 miſſing. Marines, 1 rank and file wounded.

Return of the wounded, of the Britiſh, on the 15th of Oct. on the Hauteurs of Thouars.

Three rank and file wounded.

La Malgue, Oct. 16, 1793.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inform your lordſhip, that, in conſequence of the enemy's having repeatedly appeared on the important hill of Cape Brun, which overlooks this fort, and commands a great part of the harbour, I ordered 100 men of Huiſteins, or battalion of Royal Louis, to be poſted

posted there, and on the 14th repaired there, with the engineers, to prepare for its defence; and, after they had marked out the situation of an intended work, I sent a reinforcement of 100 of the regiment of Royal Louis. On the 15th, before day, the report of musquetry was heard, which increased with the light, and induced me to order 100 of the 30th regiment, 100 Neapolitans, 50 Spaniards, and the remainder of the Royal Louis, to follow me there. By the time I got to the bottom of the hill the fire was become very brisk, and I had some difficulty to get up by the road. The troops from La Malgue were nearly up, by a shorter road through vineyards. I detached captain Torriano, of the 30th, to go round the left of the hill, and take the enemy on their right flank. This had the desired effect, and they gave way. On the top of the hill I found the Royal Louis defending themselves gallantly, although hard pressed, but the outposts driven in, and the men in want of cartridges. I advanced with the fresh troops, and recovered our out-posts, after an obstinate resistance, and placed captain Tomlinson, of the 30th, in the advance, the Neapolitans in the centre. Captain Torriano on the left, with the Royal Louis and the Spanish troops on the right; and it was near an hour before the enemy retired. They were supported by cannon; we had none. I had previously sent an aide-de-camp to La Malgue for cartridges, and to Toulon for support of troops. The enemy, notwithstanding they were greater in force than I expected, did not seem disposed to renew the attack; insomuch, that I ordered the workmen to begin the redoubt, visited the posts, and then returned to the fort for the purpose of hurrying up guns, ammunition, provisions, &c. and repeating my request of men from Toulon. In half an hour after I had left Cape Brun, the whole army of the enemy had advanced under cover of woods, and, supported by artillery, attacked the post on all sides, and carried it in consequence of numbers, notwithstanding a most distinguished resistance. I am sorry to inform, that, in both affairs, many brave officers and men fell. In the person of captain Torriano his majesty lost one of the most respectable officers in Europe. Were I to enter upon the conduct of the officers and men, I should fail in doing justice to their merit. The 30th regiment did all that men could do; and the battalion of Royal Louis, although only a few days formed, fought with determined valour. The fortunate recovery of the post was so immediately under your lordships eye, that it is unnecessary for me to add more, than that I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) G. K. ELPHINSTONE.

Right Hon. Lord Hood,
&c. &c. &c.

Return of the Killed, Wounded, and Missing, of the British, October 15, on Cape Brun.

1 captain killed; 1 lieutenant, 9 rank and file wounded; 1 lieutenant, 4 rank and file missing.

Names of Officers Killed, Wounded, and Missing.

30th regiment. Captain Torriano killed; lieutenant Hamilton wounded; lieutenant Shewbridge missing.

Lieutenant Bambridge of the Royal Navy, aide-de-camp to governor Elphinstone, wounded.

Regiment of Royal Louis. Captain Thomasson, lieutenant Simmonet, killed; captain Buret, lieutenant D'Arno, wounded; ensign Kear made prisoner.

MULGRAVE, Act. Brig. Gen.

Whitehall, Nov. 23.

This morning lord George Conway arrived here with a dispatch from the earl of Yarmouth, dated Fort Louis, Nov. 15, 1793, mentioning that the siege of that place had been commenced by general Wurmser on the 10th inst. and that the garrison had surrendered themselves prisoners of war, to the amount of 4000 men, on the 14th. One hundred and twelve pieces of artillery of different sizes, fifteen caissons, and a great number of live stock, are also in the possession of the Austrians. The loss on the part of the latter consisted in twenty-four men killed, and about thirty wounded.

Extract of a Letter from Sir James Murray to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his Majesty's Principal Secretary of State, for the Home Department, dated Tournay, Nov. 19, 1793.

Upon the 16th inst. colonel Salis, with part of the garrison of Ypres, marched against Poperhinghoe, which the enemy had been in possession of for some time, and where they had the appearance of intending to establish themselves in force. They are, however, driven from that post, with the loss of 45 prisoners, of which four are officers, one howitzer and one tumbril, which were taken by col. Salis, without any loss upon his part.

THE THEATRE.

THE SIEGE OF BERWICK, a new tragedy, in four acts, of which Mr. Jerningham is the reputed author, was preſented at Covent-garden Theatre, on Wedneſday evening November 13.

The following are the characters of the drama:

Sir Archibald Seaton, Mr. Pope; Valentine and Archibald, his ſons, Mr. Holman and Mr. Middleton; Donaldſon, Mr. Macready; Anſelm, Mr. Hailey; Ethelberta, Mrs. Pope.

The fable is taken, with ſome variation, from the hiſtorical narrative of the ſiege in 1332. The ſons of Seaton prevail on their father to ſuffer them to lead a ſally. They are made priſoners, and the ſurrender of the place is made the price of their lives. The father rigidly adheres to his duty, but lady Seaton flies to the adverſe camp, where her prayers are unavailing. The ſons are chained to pillars in the hotteſt ſcene of action, and periſh. Seaton kills the tyrant, by whoſe order his ſons have fallen, but receives himſelf a mortal wound in the encounter. Ethelberta, not wiſhing to ſurvive her huſband and children, ſtabs herſelf with one of the arrows which have drunk the blood of the latter.

The Prologue was, as uſual, of the ſupplicatory caſt. The galleries were well deſcribed—

'Who *ride the clouds*, and are yourſelves the *ſtorm*.'

The Epilogue was more to the order of the day.—It complimented the heroic ſpirit of the preſent times, as rivalling thoſe of yore; and, after a well-turned compliment to the maternal feelings of the queen, congratulated this country,

'Whoſe *tragic ſcenes* are only on the ſtage.'

Saturday evening, Nov. 23, a new Comedy, called the WORLD IN A VILLAGE, was performed at the ſame theatre.

It is a piece of the ſame original character which diſtinguiſhes the former compoſitions of O'Keeſe. Its chief aim is to exhilarate the audience, and it has ſome touches of ſerious intereſt, and one or two affecting ſcenes of domeſtic diſtreſs.

The performance was received with applauſe.

The Prologue, which had conſiderable effect, deſcribed the miſeries of France and the happineſs of Britain; ſubjects alſo adverted to in the Epilogue. A farther account of this Comedy will be given in our next.

At the Haymarket Theatre, the ſame evening, was repreſented, for the firſt time, a new Comedy, with ſongs, called WIVES IN PLENTY, altered from Molloy's comedy of the Coquette; but that ſpecies of writing not being ſuited to the taſte of the preſent times, it was not ſo well approved as it might have formerly been; and met with ſome oppoſition when given out again for Monday.

The principal alterations made in the Coquette, as now performed, are the omiſſions of ſome of its indelicacies, the addition of a few ſongs, and ſeveral curtailments of the dialogue. But theſe are not ſufficient to make it paſs muſter as a full piece. There is a vulgarity in many parts of it that makes it very diſguſting. It contains, however, ſome ſmart repartees, and the dialogue is ſprightly; and by being cut down to a farce, and lopped of its groſs expreſſions, it may certainly afford much entertainment.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

OCTOBER 26.

ON Thurſday, orders were iſſued from the lord Chamberlain's office, for the court's going into mourning for the late queen of France, on Sunday the 27th inſtant, to change mourning on the 3d of November, and to go out of mourning on the 7th.

NOVEMBER 1.

Yeſterday, accounts were received from Swiſſerland, that lord viſcount Mountagu and Mr. Burdett were unfortunately drowned at one of the falls of the Rhine. It is remarkable that his lordſhip's fine houſe, pictures, and furniture, at Midhurſt, in Suſſex, were deſtroyed a few weeks ago.

NOVEMBER 2.

Yeſterday, was capitally convicted at the Old Bailey, Lawrence Jones, for feloniouſly making an aſſault on John Blagrave Campbell, in a certain dwelling-houſe, in Hatton-garden, putting him in fear, and taking from his perſon and againſt

against his will, a pocket-book containing bills, notes, and drafts to a considerable amount, the property of meſſ. Vere, Lucadou, and Co. *See page* 236.

And this day the ſeſſions ended, when judgment of death was paſſed upon ſeven priſoners for the ſeveral offences whereof they ſtand capitally convicted; one convicted for felony was ſentenced to be tranſported for fourteen years, twenty-ſeven for ſeven years, five to be impriſoned in Newgate, ten in Clerkenwell Bridewell, four to be publicly whipped, ſix fined 1s. each, two judgment reſpited, and forty-one diſcharged by proclamation.

The ſeſſions were then adjourned until Wedneſday the 4th of December.

NOVEMBER 5.

Laſt week died at Hampſtead, miſs Gibſon, a maiden lady. On Wedneſday, ſhe was interred at Sutton, in Eſſex. This lady's will is of a moſt ſingular nature: to her ſervants, man and wife, her bounty has been munificent: to the woman ſhe bequeaths ten thouſand pounds, but deprives the huſband of reaping any benefit from it; to their ſon ſhe has left one thouſand pounds, with the principal of his mother's legacy after her death; to the huſband, who acted in the double capacity of coachman and footman, one thouſand pounds, with her furniture, &c. on condition only, that with her two favourite coach horſes, he drives her remains to the place of interment; then, with the greateſt care and tenderneſs, bring them back again to Hampſtead; but after this journey, and allowing them a day of reſt, (Thurſday) his whole legacy to become null and void, if he does not perſonally ſee them both ſhot next day, and buried in a hole dug on purpoſe. This laſt part of the will was punctually executed on Friday morning at five o'clock, adjoining miſs Gibſon's late reſidence at Hampſtead.

NOVEMBER 7.

Advices are received from America, that a kind of plague, called the Yellow Fever, rages at Philadelphia. Theſe advices have been confirmed by official notice, ſigned by governor Clinton. By a private letter there is information, that Philadelphia is nearly depopulated. Upward of 5000 of the inhabitants have fled thence, to avoid the plague, which raged with ſuch violence ſubſequent to the 27th of laſt September, that upward of 500 perſons died in the courſe of three days. The diſtemper ſeizes the patient with a violent ſhivering-fit; the 3d or 4th day the body becomes yellow, and the ſkin is covered with purple ſpots proceeding from putridity; and the third day the unfortunate victim expires. Latterly, the inſtant the firſt ſymptoms of the fever appear, the unfortunate patient is turned into the ſtreets, as there is no medicine or relief that can prevent death. Many unfortunate people thus afflicted have actually crawled to the verge of the church-yard, knowing that death was inevitable, and there they have expired. All buſineſs had ſubſided when the laſt accounts left Philadelphia. The theatre was ſhut; and the company which embarked from this country for that city, fortunately did not land, as the plague had broke out before their arrival. They are at preſent at New York.

A letter from Philadelphia, dated September 16, ſays, 'Three of the phyſicians in this city are dead; the reſt have fled, except Dr. Ruſh, who ſtill adminiſters phyſical advice with the moſt humane attention. Philadelphia, ſo lately reſounding with the "buſy hum of men," is now deſolate and dreary. You may paſs in the middle of the day through the ſtreets and meet no perſons, ſave the poor negroes bearing the corpſes in great numbers to the burying-ground.

A letter from New York, dated September 19, ſays, 'The poſt-office in Philadelphia, will ſhut up to-morrow, as the laſt public office open: and as the banks talk of doing the ſame, it will be impoſſible to pay further attention to any buſineſs there at preſent. This city, New-York, is healthy, and nobody enters without a paſs.

NOVEMBER 9.

The London Gazette of this evening, contains his majeſty's order in council, that all ſhips, veſſels, goods, and merchandiſe now arrived, or that ſhall hereafter arrive, in any port of this kingdom, or the Iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, from any of the ports of the States of Pennſylvania, Delaware, or New Jerſey, in the United States of America, to make their quarantine for fourteen days. It alſo points out the places where ſuch ſhips ſhall perform their quarantine, and thoſe where the goods ſhall be aired.

NOVEMBER 12.

Mr. Purefoy, who killed colonel Roper in a duel four years ago, and then paſſed over to the Continent, was laſt week put under arreſt by general Dundas, at Nieuport, in conſequence of his having

challenged him when in the discharge of his duty. He was sent to Ostend under a guard, and from Ostend to England, where he arrived on Saturday last.

NOVEMBER 17.

His majesty has granted a pension of 200l. a year to the widow of captain Courtenay, who was lately killed in an action with the French frigate the Ambuscade, and also an annuity of 50l. to his two children; a sum much larger than that generally allowed on such occasions, but ordered in this instance, in consideration of the very intrepid and extraordinary conduct of this unfortunate officer.

NOVEMBER 22.

Yesterday, at a court of common council, the thanks of the court were ordered unanimously to be given to the late lord-mayor. They were likewise ordered to be written on vellum emblazoned, framed, and presented to sir James Sanderson. They were as follows:

Resolved unanimously, that the thanks of this court be given to the right hon. sir James Sanderson, late lord-mayor of this city, for his uniform and impartial administration of justice, for his diligence and zeal in the discharge of the high and important duties committed to his trust, by the unanimous voice of his fellow-citizens, for the magnificence and liberal hospitality with which he sustained the exalted office of chief magistrate of this city, for the equal regard which he paid to the inviolable liberty of the subject, and to the constitutional assistance necessary to the exertions of government at the commencement of the present hostilities, by recommending to this court the encouragement of seamen to enter into the royal navy, for the ready and polite access afforded to his fellow-citizens, for his ability and attention in presiding over the debates of this court, and his readiness to convene it upon every important occasion, for his unshaken integrity and scrupulous attachment to the welfare of these kingdoms and to the safety of its sacred constitution during a mayoralty of unexampled difficulty, calling for incessant vigilance and activity, for the prudent and effectual measures which he personally pursued at the hazard of his life to suppress the assemblies of disaffected persons in various parts of this metropolis, manifestly formed for the diabolical scheme of propagating doctrines and opinions tending to subvert the glorious constitution of our happy and flourishing country, and thereby introduce a scene of anarchy and horror, similar to that which distracts and disgraces a neighbouring people, and appals, with its sanguinary excesses, every surrounding nation, and for his spirited efforts, at all times, to secure the permanent tranquillity of this metropolis.

At the same time, it was unanimously resolved, that the sum of five hundred pounds be subscribed by this court, toward supplying the British troops, now serving on the Continent, with comfortable clothing, and other necessaries, during the winter; that a ward committee be forthwith appointed to receive the further subscriptions of other corporate bodies, or of individuals, and to carry the same into the most immediate effect.

NOVEMBER 26.

The court of King's-bench, a few days since determined that a baker is not punishable for baking on a Sunday. This may be considered as a preliminary step to the reducing the idle journeymen bakers to their duty.

The court declared that the legislature intended to afford an opportunity to families of any description to have their dinner baked on a Sunday, in order that their servants, being thereby saved the time and trouble of dressing them at home, might go to church; for that, according to the opinion of lord Mansfield in the case of the King v. Cox, 'The Sabbath is more likely to be generally observed by a baker staying at home to bake the dinners of a number of families, than by his going to church and those families or their servants staying at home to dress dinners for themselves;' and that it falls within the exception of the statute as being a work of necessity and charity; for that it is necessary to be done whenever the conveniency of a family requires it.

BIRTHS.

PRincess Royal of Denmark, a princess.

Duchess of Dorset, a son and heir.

MARRIAGES.

AT Petersburgh, his Imperial highness, the great duke Alexander Paulowitch, to her Imperial highness the great duchess Elizabeth Alexievna.

Rev. John Acland, vicar of Broad Cliff, Devon, to the hon. Catharine Devereux, sister to viscount Hereford.

Lord Mountjoy, to miss Wallis, daughter of the late Hector Wallis, esq. Springmount, Queen's County, in Ireland.

Henry Ellis Boates, esq. to miss Jane Kenyon, daughter of Roger Kenyon, of Cefn, in Denbighshire, and niece to lord Kenyon.

Rev.

Rev. Robert Barnard, prebendary of Wincheſter, to the hon. miſs Verney, daughter of lord Willoughby de Broke.

Andrew Barnard, eſq. ſon of the biſhop of Kilaloe and Kilſenora, to lady Anne Lindſay, ſiſter of the earl of Balcarras.

Duke of Mancheſter, to lady S. Gordon, daughter of the duke of Gordon.

Captain Ricketts, of the royal navy, to lady Eliſabeth Lambert.

Earl of Oxford, to miſs Scott, daughter of the Rev. Dr. Scott, of Itchen.

DEATHS.

HON. Mr. Weſt, brother to earl Delawar.

Hon. Thomas Fitzmaurice, brother to the marquis of Lanſdown.

Lord George Gordon.

Richard Tickell, eſq. a commiſſioner of the ſtamp-office.

Richard Hargrave, eſq. a commiſſioner of bankrupts.

Lady dowager Teynham.

Hon. Guy Carleton, eldeſt ſon of lord Dorcheſter.

James Rodney, eſq. uncle to lord Rodney.

Counteſs of Weſtmorland.

Robert lord Romney.

Lady Iſabella Ann Hay, daughter of the late earl of Erroll.

PROMOTIONS.

GEorge lord Rivers—Lord lieutenant of Dorſetſhire.

Right hon. John O'Neill — Baron O'Neill of Ireland.

Captain James Saumarez—a knight.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

OCTOBER 29.

JAmes Douglas Barker, of Grace-church-ſtreet, linen-draper.

James Fickſton, of Cheſter, dealer.

Thomas Wigan, of Briſtol, goldſmith.

Samuel Stott, of Mancheſter, dealer.

Thomas Salmon, of Cambridge, linen-draper.

NOVEMBER 2.

John Jones, of Cheſter, druggiſt.

Frederick Stahſchmids, of Whitechapel-road, grocer.

Joſeph Harris, of Wilmot-ſquare, St. Matthew, Bethnal-green, cowkeeper.

James Piercy the elder, and James Piercy the younger, of New Bridge-ſtreet, Black-friars, merchants.

Joſeph Stroud, of Great Surry-ſtreet, Surry, haberdaſher.

Marmaduke Rawlence, of Whitehall, money-ſcrivener.

William Warren, of Grantham-place, St. George, Hanover-ſquare, dealer in pigs.

John Gilbert, of Parſon Drove, in Cambridgeſhire, miller.

Henry Holland, of Little Chelſea, organ-builder.

Philip Levy, of Jewry-ſtreet, Aldgate, ſilverſmith.

Thomas Allen the younger, of Kingſton-upon-Thames, bricklayer.

NOVEMBER 5.

John Matthews, William M'Laws, and John Riſk, of Drury-lane, curriers.

Francis M'Knight, (partner with David Ellis) of Long-acre, brown linen manufacturer.

William M'Laws, John Riſk, and George Jenkins, of Drury-lane, curriers. (carrying on trade in the name and firm of M'Laws, Riſk, and Co.)

William Prentice, of Little Wild-ſtreet, Lincoln's-inn-fields, cabinet-maker.

Philip Emery, of Banwell, in Somerſetſhire, tanner.

James Scott, of Old Bond-ſtreet, wax-chandler.

Richard Chorlton, and John Crompton, of Mancheſter, fuſtian-manufacturers.

Joſeph Heys, of Carliſle, and John Holliwell, of Liverpool, cotton-manufacturers.

John Childs, of Huntingdon, grocer.

Charles Carleton Skarratt, of Worceſter, watchmaker.

Thomas Rands, of Welton-in-the-Marſh, Lincolnſhire, victualler.

Stephen Taylor, of St. Giles in the Fields, coach-ſpring-maker.

NOVEMBER 9.

John Seller, of Garlick-hill, glaſs-ſeller.

John Wiggin, of Stafford, innholder.

Edward Buſhell, of Bath, carpenter.

Charles Power, of Birmingham, braſs-founder.

James Oliver, of Exeter, dealer.

James Wallis Hoe, of Holbeach, in Lincolnſhire, draper.

John Stone, of Briſtol, carpenter.

John Badman, of Banwell, in Somerſetſhire, dealer.

John Williams, of Fluſhing, in Cornwall, dealer.

William Lagemann, of Briſtol, merchant.

John Wharton Bunney, of Newcaſtle-ſtreet, in the Strand, printer.

Thomas

Thomas Cooke, of Thavies-inn, hardwareman.

D'Arcy Boulton, Philip Morgan, Thomas Morgan, John Gaſpar Vancouver, and Benjamin Stow, of Buper's-bridge, Lambeth, merchants.

William Greenland, of Pitt-ſtreet, Surry, carpenter.

NOVEMBER 12.

Joſhua Gerard Mead, of Warminſter, in Wilts, butcher.

John Eveleigh, of Bath, architect.

Thomas Gwillim, of Walcott, in Somerſetſhire, builder.

Thomes Reeve, of Norwich, haberdaſher.

John Holl, of Hurcott, in Worceſterſhire, paper-maker.

John Fitze, of Weſton-ſtreet, Southwark, cooper.

Samuel Waldegrave, of Holborn, innholder.

Adam Smith, of Bethnal-green, victualler.

George Whytock, of Broad-ſtreet, St. George, maſter mariner.

Richard Humphreys, of Great Alie-ſtreet, Goodman's-fields, ſadler.

Charles Allen, of Holborn, taylor.

William Cartwright, of Gainſford-ſtreet, Southwark, mariner.

Obadiah Lodge, of Kertsforth-hill, in Barnſley, Yorkſhire, dealer.

John Pedder, of Wardrobe-place, Doctor's-commons, ſcrivener.

NOVEMBER 16.

William Locke, of Red-lion-ſtreet, Holborn, bookſeller.

Edward Jones, of Cornwall, in Denbighſhire, and Ellen Jones, of Tygwyn, in Carnarvonſhire, drovers.

Thomas Judſon and George Ludeman, of Hillar's-court, St. George's, ſugar-refiners.

Robert Wills, of Thomas-ſtreet, Holywell-mount, Shoreditch, builder.

John Aſton, of Bank-top, in Mancheſter, joiner.

John Booth, of Sheffield, in Yorkſhire, victualler.

William Nicholſon, of Shawdon-buildings, in Northumberland, horſe-dealer.

James Bunting, of Oxford, taylor.

Samuel Jones, of Old Radnor, in Radnorſhire, dealer.

William Hunt, of Bolton-ſtreet, Longacre, victualler.

John Boutch, of the Borough of Southwark, carpenter.

James Franklin, of Walcot, in Somerſetſhire, maſon.

Hunt Funnell, of Walcot, in Somerſetſhire, builder.

George Pow, of Bath, builder.

John Gifford, of Abchurch-lane, carpenter.

Henry Mackrell, of Baſing-lane, callico-glazier.

John Smith, of Eaſt-lane, Newington-butts, Surry, broker.

NOVEMBER 19.

Edward Mundell, of Scarborough, and Henderſon Skaif, of Whitby, in Yorkſhire, linen-drapers.

Charles Gilbert, of St. George's-fields, Surry, backmaker.

William Gordon, of Haſlingden, in Lancaſhire, cotton-ſpinner.

Edward Mundell, of Scarborough, and John Mundell, of New Malton, in Yorkſhire, linen-drapers.

Jonas Hinchcliffe, of Bilcliffe, in Yorkſhire, clothier.

John Beever, of Eccland, in Yorkſhire, clothmaker.

James Ainſlie, of Edward-ſtreet, Portman-ſquare, apothecary.

NOVEMBER 23.

Peter Woodward, of King-ſtreet, Cheapſide, warehouſeman.

Thomas Lock, of Saville-place, Mile-end, carpenter.

Thomas Scott, of Oxford-ſtreet, ſadler.

Robert Pickering, of Cheapſide, paper-ſtainer.

Soloman Iſrael, of Leman-ſtreet, Goodman's-fields, broker.

Henry Cole, of Bell's-buildings, Saliſbury-ſquare, warehouſeman.

Thomas White, of Portſmouth, mariner.

William Lloyd, of Snow-hill, druggiſt.

Jeremiah Hathway, of Bath, carpenter.

Edward Eaton, of Kilmarſh, in Northamptonſhire, dealer in horſes.

John Whitaker, of Worceſter, innholder.

Jonathan Robinſon, of Horncaſtle, in Lincolnſhire, grocer.

William Nelſon, of Liverpool, ſhopkeeper.

Joſeph Garlick, of Henfield, in Derbyſhire, cotton-manufacturer.

NOVEMBER 26.

William Martin, of Leiceſter-fields, printſeller.

Michael Martin, of Dover, draper.

Chriſtopher Foxes, of Cheapſide, ſeal-engraver.

William Tunnis, of Reading, victualler.

Thomas

Thomas Moore, of Glouceſter, tyler.

Robert Greaves, of Roofs, in Yorkſhire, ſhopkeeper.

Samuel Cockin, of Leek, in Staffordſhire, ſhopkeeper.

James Thornber, of Wapping, linendraper.

Peter Gapper, of Sherborne, brandy-merchant.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

CLayton's Critical Inquiry into the Life of Alexander the Great, 4to. 1l. 1s.

Moore's Journal in France, vol. 2, 7s. boards.

Horne's Diſcourſes, vol. 3, 4, 10s. boards.

Biographia Britannica, vol. 5, 1l. 11s. 6d. in ſheets.

Forbes' Treatiſe upon Gravel and Gout, 8vo. 5s.

Tranſactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. vol. 11, 5s. boards.

Haygarth's Plan for exterminating the caſual Smallpox, 2 vol. 8vo. 8s. ſewed.

Democratic Rage, a Tragedy, 1s. 6d.

Neal's Hiſtory of the Puritans, by Toulmin, vol. 1, 8vo. 7s. boards.

Worthington's (Richard) Sermons, 8vo. 6s.

Whieldon's Life of Biſhop Taylor, 8vo. 6s.

Bernard's Treatiſe on the Excellence of the Chriſtian Religion, 8vo. 7s.

Selima, or Village Tale, 6 vol. 12mo. 1l. 1s.

Memoirs of Mary, 5 vol. 12mo. 17s. 6d.

Hiſtory of May-flower, a Fairy Tale, 12mo. 3s.

Dalton's Meteorological Obſervations and Eſſays, 8vo. 5s.

Hamilton's Voyage round the World, 1790-2, 8vo. 3s. boards.

Peacock's New Method of Filtration, by aſcent through Gravel, &c. 2s.

Levi's Diſſertations on the Prophecies of the Old Teſtament, vol. 1, 8vo. 6s. boards.

Whitaker's Six Sermons, adapted to the Times, 2s.

Polwhele's Hiſtorical Views of Devonſhire, 8vo. 10s. 6d.

The Devil in Love, 2s. 6d.

A Picturesque Guide to Bath, &c. large 8vo. 1l. 1s. boards. With Cuts coloured 4to. 2l. 8s.

Brief Reflections relative to the Emigrant French Clergy, 1s. 6d.

Errors of Senſibility, 3 vol. 9s.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

November 16, 1793.

By the Standard Winchester Quarter of Eight Bushels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat		Rye		Barley		Oats	
	l.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	46	5	29	7	32	10	25	5
Surry	47	2	30	9	33	4	25	4
Hertford	45	9	34	6	34	1	23	1
Bedford	47	11	33	8	34	4	24	3
Huntingdon	46	10	——		33	6	20	9
Northampton	49	2	34	6	34	0	23	0
Rutland	52	0	——		39	0	26	9
Leiceſter	53	7	——		38	10	24	2
Nottingham	53	4	38	0	39	8	24	5
Derby	54	4	——		41	6	24	8
Stafford	51	5	——		39	5	24	7
Salop	50	0	40	0	40	8	26	9
Hereford	49	7	40	0	34	8	23	8
Worceſter	51	8	38	0	40	0	28	12
Warwick	55	5	——		49	9	28	11
Wilts	42	9	——		32	8	25	10
Berks	45	2	38	0	30	10	25	6
Oxford	48	0	——		32	0	24	10
Bucks	45	10	——		33	4	23	8
Brecon	48	0	38	4	31	2	26	9
Montgomery	45	11	——		31	4	18	8
Radnor	48	11	——		33	11	22	2

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Eſſex	43	6	31	0	32	0	27	9
Kent	45	1	34	6	29	0	20	7
Suſſex	41	2	——		32	0	26	0
Suffolk	43	10	30	8	31	1	22	10
Cambridge	42	11	28	0	29	2	17	9
Norfolk	41	6	26	10	29	0	21	10
Lincoln	46	9	32	4	34	6	19	1
York	43	12	35	1	31	10	20	6
Durham	41	6	32	0	30	3	19	8
Northumberland	40	7	30	4	25	5	17	3
Cumberland	48	4	40	0	29	10	19	6
Weſtmorland	51	2	41	0	28	0	19	8
Lancaſter	48	6	——		35	4	23	4
Cheſter	49	3	40	10	38	10	28	7
Flint	53	4	——		35	10	19	2
Denbigh	52	1	——		34	11	19	8
Angleſea	42	0	——		24	0	13	0
Carnarvon	46	0	38	3	29	0	14	10
Merioneth	52	3	39	4	35	2	16	1
Cardigan	46	4	32	0	23	8	12	2
Pembroke	39	11	——		23	11	11	4
Carmarthen	47	4	——		27	2	13	1
Glamorgan	42	8	——		27	6	15	10
Glouceſter	49	5	——		34	4	27	6
Somerſet	50	0	——		28	8	26	10
Monmouth	52	10	——		32	9	20	11
Devon	47	5	——		25	8	16	10
Cornwall	49	0	——		24	8	16	8
Dorſet	41	10	——		30	3	23	6
Hants	41	6	——		32	9	24	0

Reck Load, 2s. 5d.

PRICES

PRICES of STOCKS, from OCTOBER 29, to NOVEMBER 27, 1793, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans.	Short Ans.	India Stock.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English Lot.	English Tic.
29	166 ¼	73 ⅛	73⅛a74⅛	89 ⅛	106 ⅛	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	206 ¼	17pr.		73		9¼dif.	14	8 6
30		73 ⅛	73⅛a74	89 ⅛	106 ⅛	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	206	19		73 ¼		9 ⅛	14	6 6
31	166 ¼	73 ⅛	74a¼	89 ¼	106 ⅛	21 ⅛		206 ¼	20				9 ⅛	14	8 6
1	166 ¼	73 ⅛	74¼a74				9 ⅛	206 ¼	21				9 ⅛	14	9 6
2	167	73 ⅛	74¼a⅜	89 ⅛	106 ¼	21 ¼	9 ⅛	207					9 ⅛	14	9 0
4	166 ¾	73 ¼	74¾a¼			21 ⅛	9 ¼		22				9 ⅛	14	8 6
5															
6		73 ⅜	74¼a⅜	89 ¼	106 ⅛	21 ¼	9 ⅛	207 ¼	23		73 ¼		9 ⅛		
7	166 ¼	73 ⅜	74¼a73⅝	89 ⅛	106 ¼	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	206 ¼	23	79			9 ⅛	14	7 6
8	165 ¾	73 ⅜	74a73¾	88 ¾	106 ¼	21	9 ¼		24		73 ¼		9 ⅛	14	8 0
9															
11	165 ⅛	73	73⅛a75	88 ⅛	106 ⅛	21	9 ⅛	206 ¼	25				9 ⅛	14	8 6
12	166	73 ⅛	75a74¼	88 ⅛	107 ¼	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	208	24				9 ⅛	14	8 6
13	165 ¾	73 ⅛	74¼a¾	88 ⅛	107 ¼	21 ⅛	9 ⅛		25				9 ⅛	14	9 6
14	166	73 ⅛	74 a¼	88 ⅛		21 ⅛	9 ⅛	208	24				8 ⅞	14	9 6
15	166	73 ⅛	74¼a74	88 ⅛	107 ⅛	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	207 ½	24				9	14	8 6
16		73 ⅛	74¼a¾	88 ⅛	107 ⅛	21	9 ⅛	207	24				9 ⅛	14	8 0
18	165	73 ⅛	74¼ 74	88 ⅛	107 ⅛		9 ⅛		23	79			9 ⅛	14	10 0
19	165 ¼	73 ⅛	74¼ 74	88 ⅛	107 ⅛	21 ⅛		206 ¼	22				9 ⅛	14	10 6
20		73 ⅛	74¼a⅜	88 ⅛	107 ⅛	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	207 ½	23		73 ¼		9 ⅛	14	12 6
21	165 ½	73 ⅛	74a¼	88 ⅛	107 ⅛	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	208	24				9	14	17 6
22	166	73 ⅛	74¼a½	88 ⅛	107 ⅛	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	208	24		73 ⅛		9 ⅛	14	19 6
23	167	74 ¼	74¼a75	89	107 ⅛	21 ⅛		210 ¼					9 ⅛	14	18 6
25	167 ¼	74 ¼	75a74⅞	89 ¼	108 ⅛	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	210 ¼	25				9 ⅛	15	0 0
26	167 ¼	74 ¼	75a74¾	89 ¼	108 ⅛	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	210 ¼	25			74 ¼	9	15	8 0
27	167 ½	74 ¼	74⅞a75	89 ¼	108 ⅛	21 ½	9 ⅛	210 ¼	25				9		

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a fixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

N. B. The 3 per Cent. India Annuities shut the 31st of August last, and are now consolidated with the 3 per Cent. Reduced Annuities at the Bank.

J. Tookey, sculp.

GEORGE EDWARDS, F.R.S.

MEMOIRS *of the* LIFE *and* WORKS *of* GEORGE EDWARDS, *F. R. S. and F. S. A. With a fine Portrait of that eminent Naturaliſt.*

GEORGE EDWARDS, an eminent naturaliſt, and eſpecially diſtinguiſhed by his knowledge and delineations of birds, was born on the 3d of April 1693, at Stratford, a hamlet belonging to Weſt-Ham, in Eſſex. Some of his early years were paſſed under the tuition of a clergyman of the name of Hewit, who was then maſter of a public ſchool at Laytonſtone, a few miles diſtant from the place of young Edwards' birth. Upon quitting this ſchool, he was placed with another miniſter of the eſtabliſhed church at Brentwood; after which, being deſigned by his parents for buſineſs, he was put apprentice to a tradeſman in Fenchurch-ſtreet. He was particularly happy in his maſter, who treated him with great kindneſs and civility; and who, beſides his being a man of a ſtrict regard to religion, and the uncommon qualification of being well ſkilled in the learned languages. About the middle of the term of Mr. Edwards' apprenticeſhip, an event happened, which gave a direction to his future ſtudies. Upon the death of Dr. Nicholas, a perſon of eminence in the phyſical world, and a relation of Edwards' maſter, the doctor's books, which were very numerous, were removed to our apprentice's apartment. So unexpected an opportunity of acquiring knowledge was not loſt upon him. He availed himſelf of it with eagerneſs, and paſſed all the leiſure of the day, and not unfrequently a conſiderable part of the night, in turning over Dr. Nicholas' collections of Natural Hiſtory, Sculpture, Painting, Aſtronomy, and Antiquities. From this time, Mr. Edwards' expectation of obtaining that opulence which commerce beſtows on her aſſiduous votaries ceaſed. The ſhop and the exchange were deprived of all their delights; and, on the expiration of his ſervitude, he formed the deſign of travelling into foreign countries, for the purpoſe of improving his taſte and enlarging his mind. His firſt voyage was to Holland, for which he took ſhipping in 1716, and viſited moſt of the principal towns of the United Provinces. After an abſence of a month, he returned to England, and continued two years unemployed in London and its neighbourhood; though not, we may ſuppoſe, without increaſing his acquaintance with natural hiſtory. His next voyage was Norway, whither he went at the invitation of a gentleman who was diſpoſed to be his friend, and whoſe nephew was maſter of the veſſel in which Mr. Edwards embarked. An active and philoſophical mind, like his, could not avoid being highly gratified with the new ſcenes which were preſented to him by a country that was diverſified with rocks of ſtupendous magnitude, and trees of unfading verdure, and where ſome of the natives had ſcarcely experienced the arts of civilization. The ſun, during his ſtay, ſet only to riſe; and few hours were allotted by him to ſleep. Sometimes he wandered on the banks of the creeks, the haunts of ſea-fowls, and other rude birds, where no articulate voice was heard. At other ſeaſons, he remarked the progreſs of vegetation among the hills; and, while he was employed, he frequently experienced, among the inhabitants of the mountains, that hoſpitality which flouriſhes leſs vigorouſly in more civilized countries. In his excurſion to Frederickſtadt, he was not diſtant from the cannon of Charles the twelfth of Sweden, who was then engaged in the ſiege of Frederickſhall; before which place that unfortunate monarch loſt his life. By this circumſtance Mr. Edwards was prevented from viſiting Sweden, the Swediſh army being particularly aſſiduous in confining ſtrangers. Not-

withſtanding all his precaution, and his ſolicitude to give no offence on either ſide, he was once confined by the Daniſh guard, who ſuppoſed him to be a ſpy employed by the enemy to procure intelligence of their deſigns. However, upon obtaining teſtimonials of his innocence, a releaſe was granted.

In July 1718, Mr. Edwards embarked for England, and, ſoon after his arrival in London, retired to his native place, where he ſpent the winter. But being deſirous of viſiting France, he went, in 1719, by way of Dieppe to Paris; and, having ſeen the curioſities of that city, took a lodging in a village called Green-court, ſituated in the great park of Verſailles. His view in doing this was to enlarge his knowledge of natural hiſtory; but, to his no ſmall mortification, there was not, at that time, a living creature in the menagery. As the court, during the king's minority, did not reſide at Verſailles, the famous collection of animals had been ſo totally neglected, that they were all either dead or diſperſed. Being diſappointed in this reſpect, Mr. Edwards amuſed himſelf with the pompous cavalcades, and expoſitions of reliques, in the ſeveral churches and religious houſes; and he paid particular attention to the labours of the ſculptor and painter in the public buildings. While he reſided in France, he made two journeys of a hundred miles each. The firſt was to Chalons in Champagne, in the month of May 1720: the ſecond was on foot, to Orleans and Blois. This was performed in a diſguiſed habit, with the deſign of eſcaping thoſe ſons of rapine who make their depredations on travellers. The ſcheme happened to be peculiarly hazardous: for, an edict had recently been iſſued to ſecure vagrants, in order to tranſport them to America, the banks of the Miſſiſippi ſtanding in need of population; the conſequence of which was, that our philoſopher narrowly eſcaped a weſtern voyage.

On Mr. Edwards' return to England, he cloſely purſued his favourite ſtudy of natural hiſtory; applying himſelf to the drawing and colouring of ſuch animals as fell under his notice. His earlieſt care was rather to preſerve natural than picturesque beauty. Birds firſt engaged his particular attention; and, ſome of the beſt pictures of theſe ſubjects being purchaſed by him, he was induced to make a few drawings of his own. Theſe were admired by the curious, who, by paying a good price for them, encouraged our young naturaliſt to proceed with vigour in his labours. James Theobald, eſq. of Lambeth, a gentleman zealous for the promotion of ſcience, was one of Mr. Edwards' firſt patrons and benefactors. Being thus unexpectedly encouraged, our artiſt increaſed in ſkill and aſſiduity, and procured, by his application to his favourite purſuit, a decent ſubſiſtence and a large acquaintance. Nevertheleſs, he remitted his induſtry in 1731, and, in company with two of his relations, made an excurſion to Holland and Brabant. He was not, however, here uſeleſsly employed; for he collected ſeveral ſcarce books and prints, and had an opportunity of examining the original pictures of various great maſters, at Antwerp, Bruſſels, Utrecht, and other large cities.

In December 1733, by the recommendation of ſir Hans Sloane, bart. preſident of the college of phyſicians, Mr. Edwards was choſen their librarian, and had apartments aſſigned him in the college. This, which was the principal epocha of his private life, fixed him in an office that was particularly agreeable to his taſte and inclination. He had now an opportunity of a conſtant recourſe to a valuable library, filled with ſcarce and curious books on thoſe ſubjects of natural hiſtory which he moſt aſſiduouſly ſtudied. By degrees he became one of the moſt eminent ornithologiſts in our own or any other country; and in this reſpect his merit is ſo well known,

known, that it cannot be called in queſtion. It may particularly be obſerved, that he never truſted to others what he could perform himſelf; and that he often found it ſo difficult to give ſatisfaction to his own mind, that he frequently made three or four drawings to delineate the object in its moſt lively character, attitude, and repreſentation.

In 1743, Mr. Edwards exhibited to the world an admirable ſpecimen of his labours, in the appearance of the firſt volume of the 'Hiſtory of Birds.' It was publiſhed in quarto, on royal paper, and contains ſixty-one birds, and two quadrupeds, moſt of which had not either been delineated or deſcribed before. They are engraved on fifty-two plates, from original drawings, exactly coloured, with full and accurate deſcriptions. This volume is dedicated to the Preſident and Fellows of the Royal College of Phyſicians, whoſe favours and aſſiſtance are acknowledged by the author with the utmoſt gratitude. The deſcriptions were publiſhed likewiſe in the French language, for the uſe of foreigners, as is the caſe in the ſucceeding volumes. Mr. Edwards' ſubſcribers having exceeded his moſt ſanguine expectations, a ſecond volume of 'The Hiſtory of Birds' appeared in 1747, dedicated to ſir Hans Sloane, then phyſician to his majeſty, and whoſe merit as a naturaliſt is too univerſally known, both at home and abroad, to require any diſtinct ſpecification in this place. Sir Hans' friendſhip to our author is mentioned in the dedicat on with all the warmth of a grateful and feeling heart. The volume contains ſixty-one birds and two quadrupeds, engraved on fifty-two copper plates, with deſcriptions. In 1750, was publiſhed the third volume, containing the ſame number of plates, and fifty-nine birds. It was dedicated to the Preſident, Council, and Fellows of the Royal Society. Our author's fourth volume came from the preſs in 1751, comprehending thirty-ſeven plates, on which are engraved thirty-nine birds, and to which are added ſixteen plates of ſerpents, fiſhes, and inſects. This was the laſt volume which Mr. Edwards at that time intended to publiſh, and he ſeems to have conſidered it as the moſt perfect of his productions in natural hiſtory; on which account he dedicated it to the Supreme Being. The dedication was, without doubt, very piouſly deſigned, but the wiſdom of it cannot be commended. Such an aſſumption is too great for any human creature, and the few inſtances of the kind that have occurred in the hiſtory of literature have always been juſtly diſapproved. Perhaps ſome of our readers may wiſh to ſee in what manner our naturaliſt expreſſed himſelf in this extraordinary dedication. It was as follows:

'To GOD,

'the One Eternal! the Incomprehenſible! the Omnipreſent, the Omniſcient, and Almighty Creator of all Things that exiſt! from Orbs immenſurably great, to the minuteſt points of matter, this Atom is dedicated and devoted, with all poſſible Gratitude, Humiliation, Worſhip, and the higheſt Adoration both of Body and Mind,

by

His moſt reſigned,
low, and humble, Creature,
GEORGE EDWARDS.'

Though, from our author's addreſs to the Deity, it might be ſurmiſed that he meant to have diſcontinued his labours, his mind was too active, and his love of knowledge too ardent, for him to reſt ſatisfied with what he had already done. Accordingly, in 1758, he publiſhed his firſt volume of 'Gleanings of Natural Hiſtory,' exhibiting ſeventy different birds, fiſhes, inſects, and plants, moſt of which were before non-deſcripts, coloured from nature, on fifty copper plates. This volume was dedicated to the Truſtees of the Britiſh Muſeum. A judicious periodical critic, in ſpeaking of the work, hath paid the following tribute to our

author's merit. 'But all the writers on natural hiſtory are not chargeable with deficiencies; ſeveral having given deſigns from the life, and executed them in the moſt accurate manner. Among theſe, Mr. Edwards deſerves the moſt honourable mention; his deſigns, both in the work before us, and in his "Hiſtory of Birds," being drawn with the greateſt accuracy from nature: and therefore we are not to wonder at the welcome reception they have met with from all who have any taſte for juſt delineations, decorated in the moſt beautiful manner. The principal object is here always drawn in ſome natural and pleaſing attitude, free from all ſtiffneſs or affectation, and the plate embelliſhed in ſuch a manner as greatly to increaſe the beauty of the object itſelf. Some have, indeed, ſuggeſted, that authors in this way have ſometimes given too much ſcope to fancy, and, to increaſe the beauty of their plates, added many touches not to be found in nature. But, with regard to Mr. Edwards, we have taken ſome pains to ſatisfy ourſelves in this particular, by comparing many of the figures with the natural objects from which they were taken, and can with truth aver, that we perceived, in every part, a very exact reſemblance, both in the drawings and the colouring. Mr. Edwards has, indeed, made uſe of art in the decorations of his plates, by forming an elegant contraſt between the colours of the principal objects and thoſe of the ornaments; but, in this reſpect, he has never departed from nature; ſuch particulars being choſen, whoſe proper colours form the intended contraſt. Mr. Edwards has alſo contrived to place his ſubjects in a variety of pleaſing attitudes, that the eye may not be tired with a diſguſting ſameneſs of poſition; which at once betrays a poverty of invention and a careleſs inſpection of the original objects themſelves. Another particular which renders Mr. Edwards' works the more valuable is, that moſt of the ſubjects are ſuch as have never before been delineated or deſcribed, or that have been inaccurately performed by others: ſo that they are real acquiſitions to natural hiſtory, and increaſe our knowledge of the numberleſs ſpecies of objects with which the Almighty Creator has decorated our terreſtrial abode.'

In 1760, our author publiſhed a ſecond volume of the 'Gleanings,' containing fifty plates and deſcriptions, as well as engravings of one hundred animals and plants. The volume was dedicated to the late earl of Bute, whoſe ſtudious attachment to natural hiſtory, particularly to botany, is well known. The third part of the 'Gleanings,' which conſtituted the ſeventh and laſt volume of Mr. Edwards' works, appeared in 1763, and was dedicated to earl Ferrers, who, when captain Shirley had taken, in a French prize, a great number of birds intended for madame Pompadour. Theſe he communicated to our naturaliſt, who was hence enabled more completely to add to the value of his labours. This part contains eighty-five different ſubjects, deſigned, engraved, and coloured after nature, on fifty-two plates. The three volumes of the 'Gleanings' were accompanied with a French tranſlation upon the page oppoſite to the Engliſh. In the former volumes the deſcriptions in French were ſeparately printed.

Thus our author, after a long ſeries of years, the moſt ſtudious application, and a very extenſive correſpondence with every quarter of the world, concluded a work, which, in ſeven volumes, quarto, contains engravings and deſcriptions of more than ſix hundred ſubjects in natural hiſtory, not before deſcribed or delineated, and all the productions of his own hand. Some idea of the extreme accuracy and care of our indefatigable artiſt may be formed from the account which he himſelf has given, in the third volume of his 'Gleanings,' of his ſcrupulous exactneſs, in order to avoid the leaſt miſrepreſentation of

any

any animal, inſect, or plant, which he choſe to delineate. 'It often happens,' ſays he, 'that my figures on the copper plates greatly differ from my original drawings; for ſometimes the originals have not altogether pleaſed me as to their attitudes or actions. In ſuch caſes I have made three or four, ſometimes ſix ſketches, or outlines, and have deliberately conſidered them all, and then fixed upon that, which I judged moſt free and natural, to be engraven on my plate.' 'It is not reaſonable,' adds he, 'to expect, that a work of this nature ſhould be highly laboured and finiſhed in the colouring part, becauſe it would greatly raiſe the price of it, as colouring work, in London, when highly finiſhed, comes very dear. The moſt material part is, keeping as ſtrictly as can be to the variety of colours found in the natural ſubjects; which has been my principal care: and now, on reviſing all that have been coloured, I think them much nearer nature than moſt works of the kind that have been publiſhed.' Mr. Edwards added to the whole a general index in French and Engliſh, which is now perfectly completed with the *Linnæan* names, by that great naturaliſt Linnæus himſelf, who frequently honoured him with his friendſhip and correſpondence. Upon Mr. Edwards' finiſhing his great work, we find him making the following extraordinary declaration, or rather petition, in which he ſeems afraid that his paſſion for his favourite ſubject of natural hiſtory ſhould get the better of a nobler purſuit, viz. the contemplation of his Maker. 'My petition to God (if petitions to God are not preſumptuous) is, that he would remove from me all deſire of purſuing natural hiſtory or any other ſtudy, and inſpire me with as much knowledge of his divine nature as my imperfect ſtate is capable of; that I may conduct myſelf, for the remainder of my days, in a manner moſt agreeable to his will, which muſt conſequently be moſt happy to myſelf. What my condition may be in futurity is known only to the wiſe diſpoſer of all things; yet my preſent deſires are (perhaps vain and inconſiſtent with the nature of things!) that I may become an intelligent ſpirit, void of groſs matter, gravity, and levity, endowed with a voluntary motive-power, either to pierce infinitely into boundleſs etherial ſpace, or into ſolid bodies; to ſee and know how the parts of the great univerſe are connected with each other, and by what amazing mechaniſm they are put and kept in regular and perpetual motion. But, O vain and daring preſumption of thought! I moſt humbly ſubmit my future exiſtence to the ſupreme will of the One Omnipotent.' In the firſt part of this petition there is ſome degree of enthuſiaſm and weakneſs. Why ſhould Mr. Edwards have wiſhed to loſe the deſire of purſuing natural hiſtory, ſince the ſtudy of nature is the ſtudy of the works of God, the rational contemplation of which tends to enlarge our conceptions of the power, the wiſdom, and the goodneſs, of the divinity, and to promote a ſpirit of devotion? Nor does piety require that any other ſtudy ſhould be laid aſide which conduces to the advancement of knowledge and the welfare of ſociety. The ſecond part of our author's prayer contains a noble ſentiment, though perhaps not judiciouſly expreſſed. The thought of living for ever in the purſuit of ſcience, and the practice of virtue and benevolence, muſt be infinitely pleaſing to an enlightened and well diſpoſed mind; and I have often reflected that thoſe philoſophers (and it is to be feared they are too numerous) who do not open their underſtandings to the aſſurances of a future ſtate, which religion adminiſters, have juſt reaſon to be mortified at their being deprived of thoſe dignified proſpects of eternal reſearches into the conſtitution of the univerſe which they might otherwiſe have entertained.

Several occaſional papers, upon natural hiſtory, were communicated by Mr. Edwards to the Royal Society, and

and inſerted in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. In a few inſtances, he correſponded with other periodical publications. The prefaces and introductions to many of his volumes contain ſome curious and ingenious eſſays, relative to the object of his principal purſuit; and he hath given, likewiſe, a brief and general idea of drawing and painting in water-colours, with inſtructions for etching on copper-plates, and reflections on the paſſages of birds. Theſe eſſays, in 1770, were ſelected and publiſhed by our author, in one volume, octavo; his deſign in doing which was to accommodate and aſſiſt thoſe perſons, in their reſearches into nature, who were not equal to the expence of his great work.

Seventeen years after Mr. Edwards had been appointed Library-keeper to the College of Phyſicians, he was honoured by the Preſident and Council of the Royal Society with the donation of ſir Godfrey Copley's medal. This was on St. Andrew's Day, 1750; and the honour was conferred upon him in conſideration of his having juſt then completed his 'Natural Hiſtory of Birds,' though the laſt volume had not yet been publiſhed. His ſenſibility of this diſtinction was ſhewn by him in his cauſing a copy of the medal to be engraved, and placed under the general title in the firſt volume of his hiſtory. On the 10th of November 1757, he was choſen a Fellow of the Royal Society; and he was afterward elected into the Society of Antiquaries. He had, likewiſe, the honour of being made a member of many of the Academies of Science and Learning in different parts of Europe. In return for ſuch marks of eſtimation from learned bodies, he preſented elegant coloured copies, of all his works, to the Royal College of Phyſicians, the Royal Society, the Society of Antiquaries, and the Britiſh Muſeum. Having made the ſame preſent to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, he received from that eminent body a moſt polite and obliging letter of thanks, written by their then ſecretary monſieur Defouchy.

Our author was honoured with the friendſhip and generous ſupport of ſome of the principal nobility and gentry of this kingdom; and he has mentioned, with peculiar pleaſure, his being patronized by four great men, who were juſtly ranked among the moſt eminent promoters of learning, ſcience, and arts, in the preſent century. Theſe were the late duke of Richmond, ſir Hans Sloane, Dr. Mead, and Martin Folkes, eſq. By the deceaſe of theſe perſonages, ſo truly noble, ſo good, and every way ſo highly accompliſhed, in the ſhort ſpace of three or four years, our naturaliſt was greatly humbled and diſcouraged, He imagined, that, after ſuch a loſs to arts and ſciences in general, and to himſelf in particular, all endeavours to excel in any branch of knowledge would be fruitleſs, for want of eminent men to inſpire the riſing generation; and he thought of diſcontinuing any farther progreſs in natural hiſtory. But the national ſpirit that was diſplayed in the eſtabliſhment of that grand repoſitory of ſcience, the Britiſh Muſeum, revived his paſſion for his favourite purſuits, and was a ſtimulus to others to engage in ſimilar labours; 'and, I hope,' ſaid he, 'theſe ſeeds, ſown by public authority, cheriſhed and protected by a Prince diſtinguiſhed for virtue and learning, will take root, ſpring up, and yield a plentiful harveſt.' Mr. Edwards' hope has been happily accompliſhed: the harveſt truly has been plenteous, and the labourers not a few.

After our author's publication of the laſt volume of his 'Gleanings,' being arrived at his ſeventieth year, he found that his ſight began to fail him, and that his hand loſt its ſteadineſs. He continued, however, ſome years afterward in his office of Librarian to the Royal College of Phyſicians; but, finding his infirmities to increaſe, he retired, in 1769, from public employment, to a little houſe which

which he purchaſed at Plaiſtow; previouſly to which he diſpoſed of all the copies, as well as plates, of his works, to Mr. Robſon, bookſeller, in New Bond-ſtreet. His collection of drawings, amounting to upward of nine hundred, had before been purchaſed by the earl of Bute. The converſation of a few ſelect friends, and the peruſal of a few choice books, were Mr. Edwards' amuſement in the evening of his life; and he occaſionally made excurſions to ſome of the principal cities in England; particularly to Briſtol, Bath, Exeter, and Norwich.

Old as our author now was, he could not wholly abſtain from his beloved employments: he delineated at Plaiſtow ſome ſcarce animals, and particularly the *Siyah Ghuſh*, or black Ear, a ſpecies of the cat-kind; an engraving of which, from his drawing, may be found in Dr. Gregory Sharpe's edition of the 'Syntagma Diſſertationum' of Dr. Thomas Hyde. Our naturaliſt made alſo a drawing and engraving of the Argus or Luen, one of the largeſt ſpecies of pheaſant, a native of the North of China. This was done from a preſerved bird, that had been tranſmitted to Dr. Fothergill. Another of his drawings was of the ſnake-killer of the Indies, from the living bird belonging to captain Raymond, at Valentines, in Eſſex. Engravings of theſe three animals, and of the narrow-beaked crocodile of the Ganges, and the frog-fiſh of Surinam, are given in the Addenda to the Memoirs of Mr. Edwards' Life. We may add, that, during his retirement at Plaiſtow, he made drawings of the Keſtril, a ſpecies of hawk found in hollow trees and ruined buildings in England; which bird the reader will find deſcribed, in the 'Britiſh Zoology,' by the ingenious Mr. Pennant, with whom our author had a long and uninterrupted friendſhip and correſpondence. Mr. Edwards left an edition of Willoughby's Ornithology, with manuſcript notes, and many curious obſervations; in which he corrected the miſtakes, and ſupplied the omiſſions, of former writers. It is ſaid that they were ſoon intended to be given to the public; but we do not recollect that they have ever made their appearance. Some time before his deceaſe, he diſpoſed of a curious copy of 'Cateſby's Carolina' to Mr. Bartlet, of Lamb's Conduit-ſtreet. The plates were highly coloured by himſelf, and he often expreſſed his opinion that they were equal to the author's original work.

Mr. Edwards' latter years were embittered by the alarming depredations of a cancer, which baffled all the efforts of medical ſkill, and deprived him of the ſight of one of his eyes. He ſuffered much, likewiſe, from the ſtone, a complaint to which he had been ſubject at different periods of his life. It has, nevertheleſs, been remarked, that in the ſevereſt paroxyſms of miſery he was ſcarcely known to utter a ſingle complaint. Having completed his eightieth year, and become emaciated with age and ſickneſs, he died on the 23d of July 1773, deſervedly lamented by a numerous acquaintance. To two ſiſters, whom he left behind him, he bequeathed the fortune which he had acquired by an aſſiduous application to his favourite purſuits. They did not long ſurvive him, and, dying within a few hours of each other, were buried together. Mr. Edwards' remains were interred in the church-yard of Weſt-Ham, his native pariſh, where his executors have erected a ſtone, with a plain inſcription, to perpetuate his ſkill as an artiſt, and his knowledge as a zoologiſt. With regard to his perſon, he was of a middle ſtature, rather inclining to corpulence: the turn of his mind was liberal and chearful. The benevolence of his temper was experienced by all his acquaintance, and his poor neighbours frequently partook of his bounty. From the diffidence and humility which were always apparent in his behaviour, he did not ſeem to be calculated for ſhining in general converſation;

ſation; but, to perſons who had a taſte for ſtudies congenial to his own, he was a moſt entertaining as well as communicative companion.

How much Mr. Edwards' works continue to be held in eſtimation is apparent from the high price at which they are commonly ſold. His proper and diſtinct character is, that he far excelled all the Engliſh Ornithologiſts who had gone before him. The immenſe acceſſions which, ſince the year 1763, have been made to natural knowledge, and the higher degree of taſte and elegance to which the art of engraving has been carried, will give to ſome productions now in preparation an eminence and a reputation ſuperior to what our author has attained. But that he ſhould be exceeded by thoſe who came after him will be no diminution to his juſt fame, or prevent his memory from being handed down to poſterity with honour and applauſe.

On the MORALITY *of the* LAWS *of* ENGLAND.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

IT has often occurred to me, when I have had occaſion to peruſe the laws of our kingdom, that a man of induſtry, who had leiſure and opportunity, might form an excellent ſyſtem of morality applicable to the common buſineſs of life, from our ſtatutes, and from the deciſions of our courts of law. I have generally obſerved that theſe were originally formed on moral and philoſophical principles, and that in the preamble of many of our ſtatutes, we diſcover ſuch principles, even when we cannot ſo readily perceive the utility or the policy of the law itſelf; for in a country where laws are ſo abundant, and every year adds to the number, there muſt be ſome which will claſh with the prejudices and intereſts of a great many individuals.

It is not my intention, nor indeed have I the means to draw up ſuch a ſyſtem of morality as I conceive may be found in our laws; but to give an idea of what may be done in this way, by thoſe who have more time and leiſure, I have ſelected a few of thoſe axioms, or foundation-truths, which form the baſis of all our laws, and which are never controverted; and I truſt that it will appear that they are drawn from the trueſt ſources of philoſophical morality, and that they are as applicable to the conduct of an individual, regulating his affairs, as to a court of judicature deciding either upon life and death, or in the diſputes of contending parties. Nor will the elegant conciſeneſs with which many of them are expreſſed, eſcape the attention of the reader; at the ſame time that they may, when applied to common life and actions, bear a meaning rather different and more enlarged, than when they are made the foundation of a legal deciſion.

The following are the few I have ſelected.

Exterior acts indicate interior motives.

We ought not to depart from the laws of common obſervance.

The hand of Providence inflicts no injury for which man can be held reſponſible.

No man is accountable for his actions, who is not poſſeſſed of reaſon. A madman is puniſhed by his madneſs.

An action done againſt my will is not my action.

No man is obliged to accuſe himſelf unleſs to God.

No man ought to be allowed to judge in his own cauſe.

An ambiguous agreement is to be interpreted againſt him who makes it.

The ſtrict niceties of law, are not laws. *Summum jus, ſumma injuria.*

Where general or doubtful expreſ-

ſions

ſions admit of two ſenſes, the moſt favourable is to be taken.

It is a fault to meddle with what does not concern us.

The effect ſhould ceaſe with the cauſe.

Give, while you have any thing to give; after death your riches are no longer yours.

The law ſhould not concern itſelf about trifles.

De mortuis nil niſi bonum. There are perhaps few who know that this hackneyed remark is a very ancient law maxim. But *verum* would be a good ſubſtitute for *bonum*.

No proceedings can be carried on, or performed on a Sunday.

Craft and deceit deal in generals.

Juſtice may ſometimes ſleep, but it never dies.

Equity believes againſt accidents, and prevents miſchief.

It is fraud to conceal fraud.

That power is uſeleſs which is never brought into action.

It is uſeleſs to do that by many things which can be done by few.

A general aſſertion is to be underſtood generally, but generals imply nothing certain.

He who will have equity, muſt do equity.

He that hath committed iniquity, ſhall not have equity.

An heir is a name known in law, but a ſon is a name known in nature.

That only is certain, which can be proved to be certain.

As every man is bound to know the law, ignorance will not excuſe him.

Juſtice and fraud never cohabit together.

Juſtice ſhall be preferred to generoſity.

No man ought to be puniſhed for what another has done.

Every act is to be judged of, according to the intention of the actor.

It is not lawful for a man to do wrong, whatever may be the motive.

No degree of antiquity can give ſanction to what is bad in itſelf. What is originally wrong cannot be made right by time.

From theſe maxims, which are as eaſily applied to the moſt common buſineſs of life, as to the more ſerious deciſions of the courts, we may ſee ſufficient reaſons for thoſe encomiums, which our lawyers paſs on the *reaſon* of the common law. Law, they tell us, is the perfection of reaſon, that it always intends to conform thereto, and that what is not reaſon is not law.

It may be obſerved, that all good laws have one and the ſame origin, namely, in thoſe principles of juſtice which pervade the laws of God. They would, therefore, if arranged with this view, compoſe a ſyſtem of morality applicable to thoſe actions, which are not always cognizable by public juſtice, and to thoſe times when men are ſcreened from the eye of the world. An Engliſhman, may, therefore, take ſome pride in peruſing the hiſtory of that conſtitution, which has preſerved ſo valuable a ſyſtem of law, through the wreck of ſo many ages. It is a peculiar felicity when the laws of a people, originally formed on the eternal and indiſputable principles of truth and juſtice, have been handed down with the reſpectable ſanction of *time*, and have been, as it were, incorporated into our habits of thought, conduct and education. But while the people of this country boaſt of their felicity in this reſpect, let them not forget by what means ſuch bleſſings may be loſt. Let them not forget that private vices, public licentiouſneſs, and diſregard to religion, may precipitate this fine fabric into ruins, and bring on that anarchy, of which we have ſo terrible an example on the Continent.

I am, ſir, &c.

PHILOLEGIS.

A Curious Account of the CUSTOMS *and* MANNERS *of the* MORLACCHI, *a People of* Dalmatia: *Concluded from Page* 272.

THE dreſs of the unmarried women is the moſt complex and whimſical, in reſpect to the ornaments of the head; for when married they are not allowed to wear any thing elſe but a handkerchief, either white or coloured, tied about it. The girls uſe a ſcarlet cap, to which they commonly hang a veil falling down on the ſhoulders, as a mark of their virginity. The better ſort adorn their caps with ſtrings of ſilver coins, among which are frequently ſeen very ancient and valuable ones; they have moreover earrings of very curious work, and ſmall ſilver chains with the figures of half moons faſtened to the ends of them. But the poor are forced to content themſelves with plain caps; or if they have any ornaments, they conſiſt only of ſmall exotic ſhells, round glaſs beads, or bits of tin. The principal merit of theſe caps, which conſtitute the good taſte as well as vanity of the Morlack young ladies, is to attract and fix the eyes of all who are near them by the multitude of ornaments, and the noiſe they make on the leaſt motion of their heads. Hence half-moons of ſilver, or of tin, little chains and hearts, falſe ſtones and ſhells, together with all kind of ſplendid trumpery, are readily admitted into their head-dreſs. In ſome diſtricts, they fix tufts of various coloured feathers reſembling two horns on their caps; in others, tremulous plumes of glaſs; and in others, artificial flowers, which they purchaſe in the ſea-port towns; and in the variety of thoſe capricious and barbarous ornaments, ſometimes a fancy not inelegant is diſplayed. Their holiday-ſhifts are embroidered with red ſilk, and ſometimes with gold, which they work themſelves while they attend their flocks; and it is ſurpriſing to ſee how nicely this work is executed.—Both old and young women wear about their necks large ſtrings of round glaſs-beads, of various ſize and colour; and many rings of braſs, tin, or ſilver, on their fingers. Their bracelets are of leather covered with wrought tin or ſilver; and they embroider their ſtomachers, or adorn them with beads or ſhells. But the uſe of ſtays is unknown, nor do they put whalebone or iron in the ſtomacher. A broad woollen girdle ſurround their petticoat, which is commonly decked with ſhells, and of blue colour, and therefore called *modrina*. Their gown, as well as petticoat, is of a kind of ſerge; and both reach near to the ankle: the gown is bordered with ſcarlet, and called *ſadak*. They uſe no modrina in ſummer, and only wear the ſadak without ſleeves over a linen petticoat or ſhift.—The girls always wear red ſtockings; and their ſhoes are like thoſe of the men, called *opanke*. The ſole is of undreſſed ox-hide, and the upper part of ſheeps-ſkin thongs knotted, which they call *apute*; and theſe they faſten above the ankles, ſomething like the ancient cothurnus.

The unmarried women, even of the richeſt females, are not permitted to wear any other ſort of ſhoes; though after marriage they may, if they will, lay aſide the opanke, and uſe the Turkiſh ſlippers. The girls keep their hair treſſed under their caps, but when married they let it fall dishevelled on the breaſt; ſometimes they tie it under the chin; and always have medals, beads, or bored coins, in the Tartar or American mode, twiſted among it. An unmarried woman, who falls under the imputation of want of chaſtity, runs the riſk of having her red cap torn off her head publicly in church by the curate, and her hair cut by ſome relation, in token of infamy. Hence, if any of them happen to have fallen into an illicit amour, they commonly

of their own accord lay aſide the badge of virginity, and remove into another part of the country.

Nothing is more common among the Morlacchi than marriages concluded between the old people of the reſpective families, eſpecially when the parties live at a great diſtance, and neither ſee nor know each other; and the ordinary motive of theſe alliances is the ambition of being related to a numerous and powerful family, famous for having produced valiant men. The father of the future bridegroom, or ſome other near relation of mature age, goes to aſk the young woman, or rather a young woman of ſuch a family, not having commonly any determinate choice. Upon this all the girls of the houſe are ſhown to him, and he chooſes which pleaſes him beſt, though generally reſpecting the right of ſeniority. A denial in ſuch caſes is very rare; nor does the father of the maid inquire much into the circumſtances of the family that aſks her. Sometimes a daughter of the maſter is given in marriage to the ſervant or tenant, as was uſual in patriarchal times; ſo little are the women regarded in this country. On theſe occaſions, however, the Morlacchi girls enjoy a privilege which ours would alſo wiſh to have, as in juſtice they certainly ought. For he who acts by proxy, having obtained his ſuit, is obliged to go and bring the bridegroom; and if, on ſeeing each other, the young people are reciprocally content, the marriage is concluded, but not otherwiſe. In ſome parts it is the cuſtom for the bride to go to ſee the houſe and family of the propoſed huſband, before ſhe gives a definitive anſwer; and if the place or perſons are diſagreeable to her, ſhe is at liberty to annul the contract. But if ſhe is contented, ſhe returns to her father's houſe, eſcorted by the bridegroom and neareſt relations. There the marriage day is appointed; on which the bridegroom comes to the bride's houſe, attended by all his friends of greateſt note, who on this occaſion are called *ſvati*, and are all armed, and on horſeback, in their holiday-clothes, with a peacock's feather in their cap, which is the diſtinctive ornament uſed by thoſe who are invited to weddings. The company goes armed, to repulſe any attack or ambuſh that might be intended to diſturb the feaſt; for in old times theſe encounters were not unfrequent, according to the records of many national heroic ſongs.

The bride is conducted to a church veiled, and ſurrounded by the ſvati on horſeback; and the ſacred ceremony is performed amid the noiſe of muſkets, piſtols, barbaric ſhouts and acclamations, which continue till ſhe returns to her father's houſe, or to that of her huſband, if not far off. Each of the ſvati has his particular inſpection, as well during the cavalcade as at the marriage-feaſt, which begins immediately on their return from church. The parvinaz precedes all the reſt, ſinging ſuch ſongs as he thinks ſuitable to the occaſion. The bariactar brandiſhes a lance with a ſilken banner faſtened to it, and an apple ſtuck on the point; there are two bariactars, and ſometimes four, at the more noble marriages. The ſtariſvat is the principal perſonage of the brigade; and the moſt reſpectable relation is commonly inveſted with this dignity. The ſtacheo's duty is to receive and obey the orders of the ſtari-ſvat. The two diveri, who ought to be the bridegroom's brothers when he has any, are appointed to ſerve the bride. The knum correſponds to our ſponſors; and the komorgia, or ſekſana, is deputed to receive and guard the dowery. A ciaous carries the mace, and attends to the order of the march, as maſter of the ceremonies: he goes ſinging aloud, *Breberi, Davóri, Dobrafrichia, Jara, Picc*; names of ancient propitious deities. Buklia is the cup-bearer of the company, as well on the march as at table; and all theſe offices are doubled, and ſometimes tripled, in proportion to the number of the company.

The firſt day's entertainment is ſometimes made at the bride's houſe, but generally at the bridegroom's, whither the ſvati haſten immediately after the nuptial benediction; and at the ſame time three or four men run on foot to tell the good news; the firſt who gets to the houſe has a kind of towel, embroidered at the ends, as a premium. The domachin, or head of the houſe, comes out to meet his daughter-in-law; and a child is handed to her, before ſhe alights, to careſs it; and if there happens to be none in the houſe, the child is borrowed from one of the neighbours. When ſhe alights, ſhe kneels down, and kiſſes the threſhold.—Then the mother-in-law, or in her place ſome other female relation, preſents a corn-ſieve, full of different kinds of grain, nuts, almonds, and other ſmall fruit, which the bride ſcatters upon the ſvati, by handfuls, behind her back. The bride does not ſit at the great table the firſt day, but has one apart for herſelf, the two diveri, and the ſtacheo. The bridegroom ſits at table with the ſvati; but in all that day, conſecrated to the matrimonial union, he muſt neither unlooſen or cut any thing whatever. The knum carves his meat, and cuts his bread. It is the domachin's buſineſs to give the toaſts; and the ſtari-ſvat is the firſt who pledges him. Generally the bukkara, a very large wooden cup, goes round, firſt to the ſaint protector of the family; next to the proſperity of the holy faith; and ſometimes to a name the moſt ſublime and venerable. The moſt extravagant abundance reigns at theſe feaſts; and each of the ſvati contributes, by ſending a ſhare of proviſions. The dinner begins with fruit and cheeſe; and the ſoup comes laſt, juſt contrary to our cuſtom. All ſorts of domeſtic fowls, kid, lamb, and ſometimes veniſon, are heaped in prodigal quantities upon their tables; but very rarely a Morlacco eats veal, and perhaps never, unleſs he has been perſuaded to do it out of his own country. This abhorrence to calves fleſh is very ancient among the Morlacchi. St. Jerom, againſt Jovinian, takes notice of it; and Tomeo Marnavich, a Boſnian writer, who lived in the beginning of the laſt age, ſays, that the Dalmatians, uncorrupted by the vices of ſtrangers, abſtained from eating calves-fleſh, as an unclean food, even to his days. The women relations, if they are invited, never dine at table with the men, it being an eſtabliſhed cuſtom for them to dine by themſelves. After dinner, they paſs the reſt of the day in dancing, ſinging ancient ſongs, and in games of dexterity, or of wit and fancy; and in the evening, at a convenient hour after ſupper, the three ritual healths having firſt gone round, the knum accompanies the bridegroom to the matrimonial apartment, which commonly is the cellar or the ſtable, whither the bride is alſo conducted by the diveri and the ſtacheo; but the three laſt are obliged to retire, and the knum remains alone with the new married couple. If there happens to be any bed prepared better than ſtraw, he leads them to it: and having untied the bride's girdle, he cauſes them both to undreſs each other reciprocally. It is not long ſince the knum was obliged to undreſs the bride entirely; but that cuſtom is now out of uſe; and, inſtead of it, he has the privilege of kiſſing her as often as he pleaſes, wherever he meets her; which privilege may poſſibly be agreeable for the firſt months, but muſt ſoon become very diſguſtful. When they are both undreſſed, the knum retires, and ſtands liſtening at the door, if there be a door. It is his buſineſs to announce the conſummation of the marriage, which he does by diſcharging a piſtol, and is anſwered by many of the company. The next day the bride, without her veil and virginal cap, dines at table with the ſvati, and is forced to hear the coarſe equivocal jeſts of her indelicate and ſometimes intoxicated company.

The nuptial-feaſts, called *ſdrave* by the

the ancient Huns, are by our Morlacchi called *ſdravize*, from whence our Italian word *ſtravizzo* is undoubtedly derived. They continue three, ſix, eight, or more days, according to the ability or prodigal diſpoſition of the family where they are held. The new-married wife gets no inconſiderable profit in theſe days of joy; and it uſually amounts to much more than all the portion ſhe brings with her, which often conſiſts of nothing but her own clothes and perhaps a cow; nay, it happens ſometimes that the parents, inſtead of giving money with their daughter, get ſomething from the bridegroom by way of price. The bride carries water every morning, to waſh the hands of her gueſts as long as the feaſting laſts; and each of them throws a ſmall piece of money into the baſon after performing that function, which is a very rare one among them, excepting on ſuch occaſions. The brides are alſo permitted to raiſe other little contributions among the ſvati, by hiding their ſhoes, caps, knives, or ſome other neceſſary part of their equipage, which they are obliged to ranſom by a piece of money, according as the company rates it. And, beſide all theſe voluntary or extorted contributions already mentioned, each gueſt muſt give ſome preſent to the new married wife at taking leave the laſt day of the ſdravize; and then ſhe alſo diſtributes ſome trifles in return, which commonly conſiſt in ſhirts, caps, handkerchiefs, and ſuch like.

The nuptial-rites are almoſt preciſely the ſame through all the vaſt country inhabited by the Morlacchi; and thoſe in uſe among the peaſants and common people of the ſea-coaſt of Dalmatia, Iſtria, and the iſlands, differ but little from them. Yet among theſe particular varieties, there is one of the iſland Zlarine, near Sebenico, remarkable enough; for there the ſtariſvat (who may naturally be ſuppoſed drunk at that hour) muſt, at one blow with his naked broad ſword, ſtrike the bride's crown of flowers off her head, when ſhe is ready to go to bed. And in the iſland of Pago, in the village of Novoglia (probably the Giſſa of ancient geographers) there is a cuſtom more comical, and leſs dangerous, but equally ſavage and brutal. After the marriage-contract is ſettled, and the bridegroom comes to conduct his bride to church, her father or mother, in delivering her over to him, makes an exaggerated enumeration of her ill qualities: 'Know, ſince thou wilt have her, that ſhe is good for nothing, ill-natured, obſtinate, &c.' On which the bridegroom, affecting an angry look, turns to the young woman, with an 'Ah! ſince it is ſo, I will teach you to behave better;' and at the ſame time regales her with a blow or a kick, or ſome piece of ſimilar gallantry, which is by no means figurative. And it ſeems in general, that the Morlack women, and perhaps the greateſt part of the Dalmatians, the inhabitants of the cities excepted, do not diſlike a beating either from their huſbands or lovers.

In the neighbourhood of Derniſh, the women are obliged, during the firſt year after marriage, to kiſs all their national acquaintances who come to the houſe; but after the firſt year they are diſpenſed from that compliment; and indeed they become ſo intolerably naſty, that they are no longer fit to practiſe it. Perhaps the mortifying manner in which they are treated by their huſbands and relations is, at the ſame time, both the cauſe and effect of their ſhameful neglect of their perſons. When a Morlack huſband mentions his wife, he always premiſes, by your leave, or begging your pardon. And when the huſband has a bedſtead, the wife muſt ſleep on the floor near it. Our author often lodged in Morlack houſes, and obſerved that the female ſex is univerſally treated with contempt: it is true, that the women are by no means amiable in that country; they even deform and ſpoil the gifts of nature.

The

The pregnancy and births of thoſe women would be thought very extraordinary among us, where the ladies ſuffer ſo much, notwithſtanding all the care and circumſpection uſed before and after labour. On the contrary, a Morlack woman neither changes her food nor interrupts her daily fatigue on account of her pregnancy; and is frequently delivered in the fields, or on the road, by herſelf; and takes the infant, waſhes it in the firſt water ſhe finds, carries it home, and returns the day after to her uſual labour, or to feed her flock.

The little creatures, thus careleſsly treated in their tendereſt moments, are afterward wrapt in miſerable rags, were they remain three or four months, under the ſame ungentle management; and when that term is elapſed, they are ſet at liberty, and left to crawl about the cottage and before the door, till they learn to walk upright by themſelves; and at the ſame time acquire that ſingular degree of ſtrength and health with which the Morlacchi are endowed, and are able, without the leaſt inconvenience, to expoſe their naked breaſts to the ſevereſt froſts and ſnow. The infants are allowed to ſuck their mother's milk while ſhe has any, or till ſhe is with child again; and if that ſhould not happen for three, four, or ſix years, they continue all that time to receive nouriſhment from the breaſt. The prodigious length of the breaſts of the Morlacchian women is ſomewhat extraordinary; for it is very certain, that they can give the teat to their children over their ſhoulders, or under their arms. They let the boys run about, without breeches, in a ſhirt that reaches only to the knee, till the age of thirteen or fourteen, following the cuſtom of Boſſina, ſubject to the Porte, where no haraz or capitation-tax is paid for the boys till they wear breeches, they being conſidered before that time as children, not capable of labouring, or of earning their bread. On the occaſion of births, and eſpecially of the firſt, all the relations and friends ſend preſents of eatables to the woman in childbed, or rather to the woman delivered; and the family makes a ſupper of all thoſe preſents together. The women do not enter the church till forty days after child-birth.

The Morlacchi paſs their youth in the woods, attending their flocks and herds; and in that life of quiet and leiſure they often become dexterous in carving with a ſimple knife: they make wooden cups, and whiſtles adorned with fanciful baſſe-reliefs, which are not void of merit, and at leaſt ſhow the genius of the people.

ON DEFERENCE TO PUBLIC OPINIONS.

IN the world, and even in the church, we live among perſons who keep a ſtrict eye upon the whole tenour of our conduct, and ſome from praiſe-worthy motives. Zealous paſtors watch the ſteps of their flocks; affectionate relations or friends obſerve a mutual attention toward each other, in order to interfere, when neceſſary, with their advice or aſſiſtance: but laying aſide all palliatives, the moſt common principle of the eager enquirers after the circumſtances and behaviour of others, are of an inferior ſtamp. It is neither more nor leſs than an idle curioſity, envy, and malice, which ſtuff the brains of ſo many with the anecdotes of their town. Now, would theſe carping ſpectators ſee and relate things as they really are; would they, in doubtful caſes, vouchſafe to put the moſt gentle conſtruction or ſuſpend their judgment; their prying into things (which, after all, do in no wiſe concern them) would be rather futile than criminal: but how miſconſtrued and exaggerated are our words, our actions, and even our geſtures? Our very ſilence does not eſcape animadverſion. Is it not a known truth, that the infectious breath

of

of ſlander tarniſhes the pureſt lives, aſſigns evil motives to lawful actions, and, much more, puts a bad conſtruction on any, where there is the leaſt equivocal appearance.

This is the ſituation of every member of the church and community, and the more eminent his talents and virtues, the more is he expoſed; the wicked being exceedingly indulgent to each other, but giving no quarter to the virtuous, they ſift them without mercy; they cannot bear any ſhould be thought better than they themſelves. Now, this being the caſe, how ſhall an honeſt man or a good Chriſtian behave? Shall he diſcompoſe himſelf to lend an ear to theſe inceſſant rumours, theſe buzzings of the multitude? Shall he put on a new behaviour? Shall he alter the plan of his life upon every new cenſure of it? Experience tells him that this would be labour in vain, and that, to pleaſe every body, was never yet the lot of any one. We are under many duties to ſociety; ſo we are to ourſelves; and the latter muſt take the lead. Society forbids us to introduce diſorder, by behaviour of an offenſive appearance; but ſociety (herein I include the church, as theſe two bodies make one) Society, I ſay, treats us with an aſperity to which it has no right, by giving an injurious turn to appearances. Muſt they then be given up to it? Here I think lies the great ſtreſs, the preciſe point of the queſtion under hand, to the clearing up of which I offer the following diſtinctions.

I diſtinguiſh three ſorts of *publics*, or three claſſes of perſons in the community and in the church, a judicious public, a weak public, and an unjuſt public. The judicious public, whoſe deciſions are ever ſquared by equity, and which requires no further of us than the obſervance of our duty, has a right to our attention with all poſſible regard. Its voice being no other than that of religion and reaſon, there is no need of dwelling on proofs of its juſt claim to deference. If it pronounces certain ſteps to be inconſiderate, miſbecoming, or dangerous, its decree muſt immediately take place: there is no pleading any ideal innocence, which might be at the bottom of thoſe exceptionable proceedings; the excuſe is frivolous; whatever is really a ſtumbling-block to our rational neighbour, and gives him a ſenſible offence, cannot be innocent; the precept of abſtaining from all appearance of evil admits of no exception.

There is an unjuſt public, rancorous ſpies bent on injuring us, and who will be ſure to work us continual trouble, while we ſubmit our tranquillity to their notions. If maſter of a plentiful fortune, you make a decent uſe of it in the conveniencies and entertainments of life, this is exclaimed againſt as luxury and epicuriſm, which you muſt immediately retrench; and had you at firſt ſet out in the ſtrict economy, which they require, then their cry would have been, Such ſtinginess! is this being a ſteward of God? This is nothing leſs than trampling the gifts of Providence under foot. Theſe, in fine, are a crew whom there is no ſatisfying, nor ſhould it have any ſhare in our thoughts. Let this public talk on; it is the beſt way to get rid of them; finding their clamours diſregarded, they have the wiſdom to be ſilent; whereas any concern ſhewn at their tattle, any endeavours to gratify it, are only ſo much more matter for giving it a quicker circulation. It is even a kind of entertainment to a ſpeculative man, who can command his temper, to ſee and hear the machinations and buſtles of theſe contemptible vermin; he is like one ſitting on a lofty rock, who ſees the waves breaking at his feet.

But there remains another public, ſtill more vexatious, theſe are the *weak public*: actuated by prejudices and ſuperſtition, they make ſalvation to depend on a thouſand trifles, and are thrown into very painful agitations at mere nothings. With them a gnat is a camel. How are we to behave toward

ward ſuch? Are we to conform to their miſtakes?

In anſwer to this, which is properly the caſe of the queſtion I would now clear up, I obſerve firſt, that it is the immediate end of our Saviour's injunctions, *not to offend any of theſe little ones.* If they are real weakneſſes in our neighbours, though of themſelves they have not abſolutely a claim to be humoured, yet religion, and even natural equity, teaches us to condeſcend to them. To be convinced of this, only repreſent to yourſelf the conſequences of a different behaviour, and recollect an inſtance in the apoſtolic times. All foods are certainly equal as to any inherent ſacredneſs or pollution; meats ſacrificed to idols are expoſed to ſale, which I can buy and eat of without any remorſe; but my weaker brother conceives this to be downright idolatry; and if I do ſo in his preſence, he will conclude me guilty of that idolatry; or even his faith, from his opinion of me, will be ſtaggered, ſo that poſſibly he may fall into a real idolatry. Is it a queſtion how we are to act in ſuch a caſe?

Further, what we are pleaſed to call an inſupportable conſtraint, a grievous ſacrifice, are not ſuch weighty matters as we may think. Upon any hint of a great man from whom we expect a warm poſt, we are ready to ſhew a much more troubleſome deference to his humour. The public imagines that you frequent a houſe of ill-repute: let it imagine ſo, ſay you, I am conſcious of my purity. Not at all, let it *not* imagine ſo; this alone hinders all the good effects of your virtues, and weakens the force of your example in the cauſe of religion. Sure you cannot heſitate to break off a commerce which is an obſtruction to ſo much good, and whereby your character, otherwiſe ſo excellent, becomes of no general uſe. Thus are many valuable perſons circumſtanced toward the *weak public*, and it would be a kind of cruelty, not to ſubmit in ſome meaſure to its infirmities.

Different conditions, tempers, age, and a thouſand other circumſtances, may either increaſe or diminiſh this deference which is due to the weak public. There is not that perſon in the world, who is or ought to think himſelf *above the world's tongue.* But ſome there are whom it more eſpecially concerns to keep fair with it, I mean thoſe who ſtand high either in church or ſtate. For ſuch to ſay, What care I about the people's thoughts? Is little leſs than to ſay, what care I whether I diſcharge my office, with honour to myſelf or advantage to the public? They who take upon themſelves important employments, are above all others called upon to prepare themſelves for conſtraints, to forego certain entertainments and pleaſures, which, though in themſelves innocent, may be looked upon as of evil tendency.

Laſtly, an inducement, and a very important one, to this condeſcenſion to the weak, is the preſervation of our own virtues. If any one be wanting in a ſenſe of what he owes to others, and of the precipices to which his indiſcretion leads them, let him mind himſelf, let him fear for his own ſalvation. Whatever ſtock of virtue he may have acquired, ſtill it is poſſible, it is natural, that the appearance of evil may betray him into the reality; the path is ſo ſlippery, that not *a few* have found themſelves plunged into the mire of vice, who once, in their calm hours, would have ſtartled at any ſtep toward it.

It is ſaid of female chaſtity, that it is a flower which fades irretrievably, and that ſuſpicion blaſts it no leſs effectually than guilt itſelf: this is in no ſmall meaſure applicable to Chriſtian virtues. A good Chriſtian ſhould be accounted ſuch; the natural effect of his amiable character being to diffuſe a charming fragrancy, inviting others to imitation. Now, wilfully to neglect ſuch delightful, ſuch beneficial conſequences of his ſanctity, is to deprive himſelf of one of the rewards which God has annexed to it;

Nuneham Courtenay, the Seat of Earl Harcourt?

it is turning his back on the ineſtimable privilege of bringing others to goodneſs, and neglecting a powerful means for the improvement of his own.

For, though good works are not to be done merely with an eye to applauſe, yet it is certain, that a brilliant reputation, acquired by an exalted uniformity in virtue, is a treaſure, the preſervation of which is worthy of all our attention and delicacy. When once this reputation comes to be laid open, there is one, and often one of the ſtrongeſt fences, thrown down. Such and ſuch things are talked of you, ſay ſome officious ſeducers: were you actually guilty, it would be no more. Since the public thus wrongs you, would I make myſelf its ſlave, and lay a reſtaint upon myſelf, which they will ſtill miſinterpret? Since virtue cannot command their good word, I will even ſwim with the ſtream. Thus do the appearances of evil lead to actual evil.

This is far from being all; and I affirm it to be a point of exceeding difficulty to trace the limits, and indicate where appearances are no more than appearances, and where begins the combination with evil. They are like the extremities of ſhades on paintings, whoſe delicate gradations of light and ſhade, hinder the eyes from diſcerning where the light terminates and the ſhade begins. How many things accounted no more than appearances, viewed in a juſt light, are very ſtriking evils. For inſtance, thoſe converſation-freedoms called jocularity and ſport, if rightly named, are ribaldry and detraction, at leaſt very idle words. Many amuſements, uſed as and called recreations, are often a frivolous and deſtructive diſſipation. In a word, as there is no exceeding in precaution and diligence where our everlaſting happineſs lies at ſtake, it becomes every man to be very exact and rigid even as to the appearances of evil, and to ſpare no pains in totally eradicating them out of his diſpoſition, that his practical ſyſtem may be irreproachable.

REMARKS *during a* SIX WEEKS RESIDENCE *in* OXFORDSHIRE *and* GLOUCESTERSHIRE, *in* 1792: *In a Series of Letters to a Friend: With a beautiful View of* NUNEHAM COURTENAY, *the Seat of the Right Honourable Earl* HARCOURT.

LETTER IV.

Oxford, Auguſt 1792.

DEAR SIR,

THE travelling enquirer ſeldom conſiders that it is ſometimes not very eaſy, and ſometimes not quite ſo proper to attempt to gratify his curioſity. I have now and then, in the courſe of my travels in other places, gained by hints what would have been denied to direct queſtions. When a man has ſhewn us his eſtate we muſt not aſk what is the annual produce; when he leads us through a fine houſe, we dare not aſk what the eſtabliſhment is, although curioſity will always prompt to ſuch enquiries, where we find that the eſtate is extenſive, and the eſtabliſhment ſumptuous. I wiſhed to be able to aſcertain the value of the revenues of this univerſity, but for obvious reaſons this was not to be accompliſhed. You may indeed get a groſs ſum, but you may be pretty certain that it is either much above, or below the truth. Not that there is a deſign to deceive you; but from the difficulty of aſcertaining all the ſums neceſſary for a proper eſtimate.

The revenues of Oxford univerſity have ariſen, in the earlier periods, from the munificence of our Henrys and Wolſeys, of princes and ſtateſmen; but ſince the commencement of the preſent century, they have been increaſed chiefly by prelates and other

learned ſons of the *Alma Mater*, whoſe talents and induſtry raiſed them to high offices in the church, or to opulence in the learned profeſſions. Simple *clerks* have been ſent from hence who have returned biſhops, judges, and founders.

In biſhop Sancroft's time, the total ſum of the annual revenues of the colleges amounted to 23,190l. of which, after neceſſary deductions, there remained eighteen thouſand pounds for the maintenance of twenty-five heads of houſes, five hundred and twenty-ſix fellows of colleges, three hundred and ſixty-two chaplains, ſcholars, &c. one hundred and twenty-nine ſervitors, and other ſervants who lodged in colleges, and three hundred college ſervants, who generally kept families altogether dependent on what they had from the colleges. The biſhop alſo eſtimates, that twelve hundred perſons are provided for in the city, as tradeſmen of various deſcriptions, depending on the college cuſtom. Thus far from Tanner's manuſcripts in the Bodleian library, publiſhed by Mr. Gutch.

That the preſent revenues exceed this is beyond all doubt. Chriſt Church alone poſſeſſes a revenue of 12,000l. a year, ariſing from landed eſtates. It is likewiſe certain that the neceſſary expences exceed the former computation. The plan adopted, I believe in the early part of the laſt century, for the preſervation and increaſe of the college eſtates, was an excellent one. Swift ſays, that inſtead of limiting their rents to a certain ſum of money, they prevailed with their tenants to pay the price of ſo many barrels of corn, to be valued as the market went at two ſeaſons of the year. For a barrel of corn is a real intrinſic value, which gold and ſilver are not. If this plan was not diſcontinued, the colleges muſt have preſerved all their funds pretty entire to this day, at the ſame time that the bequeſts of individuals muſt have greatly increaſed them. You are alſo to include the natural and progreſſive improvement of lands. Dr. Watſon, the preſent biſhop of Landaff, values the eccleſiaſtical preferment, or land in mortmain, of Oxford at 120,000l. By the bye, Cambridge amounts only to one half of this ſum. I have already hinted that the univerſity itſelf, as a grand corporation, is far from being rich. Donations to any of the colleges, however valuable, add nothing to the public funds of the univerſity.

The univerſity dreſs is retained in uſage by very ſtrict laws. No ſtudent muſt appear in public without his gown and cap. The reaſon is an old one. Wood ſays, that 'In former times, when they had a mind to do evil, perſons would put on gowns and be ſcholars, but when in danger of being taken or puniſhed would throw them off and be laics.' 'This,' adds he, 'was much uſed in this age, and I have known it ſeveral times uſed in my time; to the great ſcandal of the univerſity.' The practice, however, is a little varied at preſent. Young gentlemen 'when they have a mind to do evil,' throw off every appearance of regularity, and are by no means liable to the ſuſpicion of being ſcholars. According to a ſtatute paſſed in the year 1770, in convocation, no head of a college, nor all together, have a right to diſpenſe with or alter any part of the academic dreſs, without the conſent of the convocation, which is the legiſlative body. Some years ago, when I was here during the combuſtion of election politics, I obſerved a ſcholar wearing a huge fox's tail fixed to his cap. On my enquiring what part of the academic dreſs that might be, I was told—the young gentleman was a *marquis!*

I had occaſion to obſerve that a part of the eccleſiaſtic diſcipline is adhered to here with great impartiality. Private baptiſm is not allowed to be adminiſtered to any perſon's child. A lady of high rank, who lately lay-in at Oxford, petitioned in vain to be preſerved from the vul-

garity of a public baptiſm, but it could not be diſpenſed with, and ſhe had the mortification to have this act of religion performed in the place appointed for public worſhip! It is remarkable, however, that the clergy, in general, conſider this as a matter of indifference every where but here.

The univerſity ſermon is preached at St. Mary's, or the univerſity church, every Sunday, except during lent. The ceremony on this occaſion may be new to you. The vice-chancellor, proctors, heads of houſes, doctors, maſters, &c. being aſſembled, a voluntary is performed by Dr. Hayes, or one of his pupils; after which a pſalm is ſung by the choriſters. The preacher then commences by a general prayer for the church, king, royal family, the univerſity, chancellor, vice-chancellor, &c. &c. In this prayer he alſo commemorates the founders and benefactors of the college, (to which he happens to belong) by name. After prayer and the ſermon, the vice-chancellor, proctors, &c. retire in proceſſion, and the pariſhioners advance to hear the uſual morning prayers from the curate or reader.

The ſermon is preſumed to be a learned one, that is, ſuch in point of learning and critical acumen as it would become the dignity of ſuch an auditory to hear. This, however, is not always the caſe, nor now expected. What I have heard were plain, ſenſible diſcourſes, on ſome leading point of the Chriſtian belief. If this mode of attending the univerſity ſermon were not eſtabliſhed on old precedents. I might perhaps add, that the form of ſervice ſeems to require the countenance of the univerſity as much as the ſermon. But, probably, their attendance at their reſpective chapels is deemed ſufficient.

You will be ſurpriſed, my dear friend, when I tell you, that an epidemic diſorder rages at preſent in this as well as in moſt of the *midland* counties; for the neighbourhood of the *ſea* is an antidote to it. As this has not yet been deſcribed by any of the faculty, I wiſh to ſupply the defect, as far as my obſervation goes. I know not how to give you a more juſt idea of it, than by ſaying that it is in every reſpect the reverſe of that malady, the chief ſymptom of which is the *hydrophobia*, or dread of water. The patients in the diſorder which now rages, diſcover the greateſt deſire for water, and their converſation, which it muſt be confeſſed is not always very rational or conſiſtent, is a perpetual ring of changes on the words, *cut*, *lock*, *depth*, *breadth*, *grand junction*, *ſhare*, *navigation*, &c. The diſorder has not hitherto attracted the attention of the faculty, ſo as to incline them to preſcribe toward a complete cure. In ſome caſes, however, an *act of parliament* has been found to anſwer; in others, the very refuſal of that act has operated moſt effectually.

What renders the diſorder more infectious, is the perpetual intercourſe which the patients wiſh to have with one another, or with *ſound* perſons. On occaſions of this kind, one of which I witneſſed yeſterday, they never fail to *ſhare* with each other a part of the complaint, and ſo mechanical does the diſeaſe appear, that they exchange ſymptoms with as much eaſe as they would any kind of property. I was accoſted by a gentleman from London, who labours under this diſtemper, in a very extraordinary way: 'Pray, do you touch Braunſton? Perhaps Glouceſter? Any Oxford? I have got two Uppingham: I wiſh the d—l had them. What do you ſay to Leiceſter? I'll give you Bury for Old Rochdale!'

By this time you have found out the true name of the diſorder I am ſpeaking of, which, however, notwithſtanding the zeal of its friends, I am far from thinking *is* a diſorder. In a country where ſo much is inland, where the metropolis is drawing every thing into its own vortex, the great advantage of canals, will, I am certain, be clearly demonſtrated, wherever

they have been dug. Coals, that formerly were dearer in Oxford than in London, are now to be procured at very reaſonable rates, one ſhilling and three-pence *per* hundred, which are brought hither by the Oxford canal, in great plenty, from Coventry, &c. Before the completion of this canal, ſeven thouſand chaldrons yearly were ſent hither from London; but the trade is now loſt to the metropolis, and the inhabitants of Oxford have the advantage of coals free, among other expences, of the London duty.

During the great froſt in 1788, ſome London ſpeculators ſent a conſiderable quantity of coals to Oxford by land carriage, and attempted to ſell them at half a guinea *per* ſack; but unfortunately for them, the thaw came on ſoon after their arrival, and they lowered their price to ſeven ſhillings and ſixpence, but even at that price, they were ſuppoſed to have loſt by their adventure.

The advantages of a clean and well-aired market are ſo many, that I cannot help recommending that of Oxford as a model. About twenty years ago this neceſſary *nuiſance* ſtood in the ſtreet, as is ſtill the caſe in ſome country towns; but now a new general market is erected between the High Street and Jeſus College Lane, upon a very extenſive ſcale, and perfectly commodious. The proviſions are plentiful and reaſonably priced. Three avenues running through the whole in direct lines, interſected by another in the middle, afford a free currency of air. I may add that the proctors are here the clerks of the market, and inſpect the proviſions and meaſures. This buſineſs, like many others equally neceſſary, is, in great towns, generally left to perſons of the lower claſs, to whom it *may occaſionally* be advantageous to overlook *little miſtakes*.

The city priſon is a handſome, ſubſtantial building by Blackburn, perhaps too large. Oxford muſt become very wicked before one half of it is wanted.

The county gaol, ſituated near the old caſtle, is finiſhed only in part, but is very commodious, and has a very neat chapel. The felons are uſefully employed on the canal, and other works. I rejoice to be able to give the following ſtatement of the value of the work done by the felons in the gaol and houſe of correction, for one year.

	£.	s.	d.
By labour of different kinds in works carried on within the walls -	297	10	8
Caſh paid into the hands of the treaſurer for labour on the river navigation, and the repair of the Bottley turnpike road -	91	8	7
	388	19	3
Total expence of clothing and maintenance -	273	10	8
Balance -	115	8	7

Had theſe men remained unemployed, as in the London and other priſons, they would have coſt the county in common allowance 122l. 16s. 7d. whereas there is, after their full maintenance, a balance of 115l. 8s. 7d. derived from their labour.

Oxford, September 1792.

As this is the laſt letter you will receive from me at this place, I have kept it open, to ſend you an account of an excurſion to Nuneham Courtenay, the ſeat of earl Harcourt; an object which few neglect to viſit, who are ſo near it. In the road, nothing is noticeable, unleſs perhaps Sandford, which has the ſmalleſt church and the largeſt churchyard in the kingdom. The latter occupies more than twelve acres. The living bears ſome proportion to the church, being worth only 30l. per annum.

Nuneham Courtenay, through a variety of changes, is now the property of the Harcourt family. The houſe, which was built by the late earl, has ſince been much altered and enlarged. It is an elegant plain ſtructure, ſtanding in a park of near ſeven miles in circumference, which exhibits a greater variety of bold and

picturesque

picturesque scenery than perhaps any other. Of them Horace Walpole (less known as the present lord Orford) says, that 'there are some worthy of the bold pencil of Rubens, or to be subjects for the tranquil sunshines of Claude.'

The gardens were laid out by Brown, whose taste, by the bye, for the unadulterated beauties of nature, does not prevail in the flower garden. This little spot is contrived to act as a deception, appearing of very great extent, although it contains not much above an acre. The walks, grottoes, &c. are decorated with the busts of imaginary and real personages; Flora, Cowley, Cato, Apollo, Faunus, Locke, &c. with inscriptions from various authors. The grotto is composed of rough stones, with spars and petrifactions mixed, to imitate a natural cavern. But I must return to the house:

You pass into the house through a vestibule, which is ornamented with Doric columns, and casts of antique statues, and ascend by an oval, geometrical staircase to the saloon, thirty feet by sixteen, and eighteen and a half high, hung with blue damask. The pictures here are chiefly family portraits, and Susannah and the Elders, by Annibale Caracci. Vandyck's Henrietta Maria, Charles the first's queen, is among the best of the remaining works of that master. The anti-room contains, among other excellent pictures, a view of part of the Quay and Bay of Naples, by Gaspar Occhiali; part of Rome and the Tiber, by the same; two fine heads by Cornelius Janssen; king William hunting, by Wootton; Christ driving the money changers out of the Temple, on marble, by Bassan. In the library we find some fine portraits by the more modern artists; Prior, by Dahl; Mrs. Pritchard, in Hermione, by Pine; Whitehead, the poet-laureat, by Wilson; Rousseau, by Gogain, after Ramsay, and Mrs. Siddons, in Isabella, by Hamilton, from which an engraving was done. The eating-room contains, sir Joshua's picture of the present earl and countess, in their coronation robes; two beautiful landscapes, by Ruysdaal and Claude; one of Snyder's best pieces, dogs and dead game. In the octagon drawing-room, we have Barocci's celebrated Holy family; The Madona, by Guido; an exquisite picture, by Poussin, Moses sweetening the waters of Meribah. There are several small pictures in this room, of great merit, particularly a portrait of Sofonisba Anguisciola, by herself. The great drawing-room, forty-nine feet by twenty-four, contains four very fine landscapes, by Van Artois, the figures by Teniers; Maria, the present dutchess of Gloucester, by sir Joshua; an undoubted original by Both, a landscape with figures, in his best manner; but the great ornament of this room is an incomparably fine landscape by Rubens, the subject a cart overturned by moon-light. There is a print from it by Bolswaert. The passage from hence to the king's bed-chamber, contains chiefly old family portraits, as does that chamber. In the queen's dressing-room, are several excellent pictures by Wyck, Watteau, Occhiali, &c. In the king's dressing-room, are a great number of portraits by Kneller, Lely, Riley, Janssen, &c. another fine piece by Snyder, of dogs, dead game, and fruit. But to enumerate all the paintings of this house would be to copy a very large catalogue. The whole form a study of the best masters, and have been selected with infinite taste. I question whether a bad picture is to be found in the whole collection; and of how many collections can this be said?

The pretty church in the gardens was built from a design of the late earl. The external is Ionic, imitating an antique temple. In the inside, neatness and delicate simplicity are its best ornaments. The principal portico, consisting of six columns, has no communication with the church, but serves for a seat in the garden; the public entrance is on the opposite side, and that to the family seat through the semi-circular portico at the west end.

end. The altar-piece, by Maſon, has conſiderable merit, the ſubject, the parable of the good Samaritan.

I ought to have mentioned, among the curioſities of the houſe, four ancient maps on tapeſtry, of conſiderable antiquity, and curious both for the workmanſhip and accuracy. Two of them are of Oxfordſhire and Glouceſterſhire. They are preſerved in a room built for the purpoſe, but are not ſhewn to every viſitor.—In a very picturesque ſituation in the gardens, is placed the *Carfax*, which formerly ſtood at the top of the high ſtreet, Oxford, a valuable piece of antiquity. Being placed where four ways meet, it got its name *quatre voix*, eaſily corrupted into *carfax*. Some years ago, it was found to be very inconvenient as an obſtruction, and was pulled down. The univerſity preſented it to lord Harcourt, who has erected it in his garden, and it forms an intereſting object.

The village of Nuneham deſerves to be mentioned on account of its excellent conſtitution. The inhabitants live under the immediate inſpection of the preſent counteſs, who has excited ſuch a ſpirit of induſtry, frugality, and cleanlineſs among her tenants as is rarely to be found. Rewards are held out to thoſe who excel in the three qualities juſt mentioned, and theſe rewards are happily contrived to promote regular behaviour, without exciting avarice, or giving latitude to cunning. The tenants who have been deemed *meritorious* may be known by the paſſing ſtranger, the letter M *(Merit)* being painted on their doors by order of the counteſs. On ſome I obſerved two or three M's, which, I was told, indicated a higher degree of merit. Their names are alſo inſcribed on the pariſh door of the church. Should any of them, however, fail in their duty, all their honours are effaced, and the door remains a blank until they retrieve their character.—At the annual *fête* given to the tenants and their friends, beſide the prizes of merit beſtowed on thoſe inhabitants who have behaved beſt during the preceding year, prizes of induſtry are adjudged to thoſe women and girls, whoſe performances in ſpinning are moſt approved of. The prizes are diſtributed at church, where, with ſingular propriety, the buſineſs of the day commences with a ſermon, &c. and after the whole ceremony, the poor people are regaled with a dinner, dancing, &c.

Throughout the year the counteſs occaſionally viſits and inſpects into the conduct of theſe people, with the affection of a generous benefactor, as well as the proper ſtrictneſs of a judge, and I am well aſſured that her ladyſhip is amply rewarded by the happy effects of her unremitting, and (I am ſorry to add) uncommon care over thoſe poor people, whoſe ſubſiſtence and happineſs depend upon her. To thoſe who can calculate in imagination, or who know in fact how great a bleſſing a nobleman of a generous diſpoſition may be, by ſtudying the happineſs of his poor tenants, and who have experienced that the greateſt luxury is the luxury of doing good, the conduct of many men of rank and property, muſt ever remain a paradox.

The village of Nuneham Courtenay formerly ſtood on a higher ground, but the late earl removed it to its preſent ſituation, rebuilding the whole in a line of neat cottages, between every two of which is an opening for a piece of kitchen garden ground. The ſituation, it is evident from the appearance of the inhabitants, is healthful, but ſuch was not the opinion of the firſt tenants, one of whom, more inſpired with the whim of ruſtic diſcontent than the genius of poetry, compoſed the following *exquiſite* verſes, which he ſlyly ſtuck upon the church door, no doubt thinking he had worked a dreadful vengeance:

'A curſe on lord Harcourt
Who made us all away go,
And brought us to this place
To give us all the *Hago* * !'

I am, dear ſir, yours, &c.

* Ague.

REFLEC-

REFLECTIONS *on the* CONCLUSION *of the* YEAR.

Eheu! fugaces labuntur anni! HOR.

TO reflect on the events, whether proſperous or adverſe, which have occurred to us in our lives; to meditate in ſilence and in ſolitude on the train of cauſes which have produced the happineſs we enjoy, or the miſeries we deplore, is a duty not leſs incumbent on us as rational than as reſponſible creatures. It becomes us as men, who would give a reaſon for our actions, that we may not ſuffer in the opinion of our fellow-creatures, and it is ſtill more neceſſary for us as men, who know and believe that we are accountable to the giver of all good for the uſe we have made of our time and talents. The wiſeſt and the beſt of men, in all ages, have recommended this duty, from a conviction that it tends to arreſt the progreſs of vice and folly, to recall the ſcattered and confuſed thoughts, to diſentangle us from the embarraſſments of worldly buſtle, and to place us on an elevated ſituation, whence we may ſurvey and comprehend the paſt and the preſent with an impartial eye. That this duty may be performed effectually, it is neceſſary that it be performed ſeriouſly; and that its effects may not be tranſient, it is neceſſary that it ſhould be often repeated. Of thoſe ſtated times, which have been pointed out for this purpoſe, the concluſion of one year and the commencement of another ſeems the moſt proper, becauſe the moſt ſtriking. Few men, even of looſe and thoughtleſs diſpoſitions, have paſſed into a new year without caſting a look, however careleſs, on that which is gone and can no more return.

Nor is this duty leſs incumbent on us as individuals, than as members of a ſociety, of a world, in which, at preſent, events are in progreſſion which threaten the very exiſtence of all that we have hitherto thought valuable and praiſe-worthy, and which involve the happineſs or miſery of the future as well as of the preſent race of mankind. The oldeſt of us have never ſeen ſuch days as we have fallen upon. To judge of what is now tranſacting on the great theatre of the world, we can derive no aſſiſtance from the page of hiſtory; we can appeal to no paſt experience; the wiſdom of the wiſeſt is folly in diſcerning either the cauſes of what has taken place, or the effects which may hereafter follow. The mutability of all human things was never before exemplified by events of ſuch vaſt magnitude and extent. Nations are brought low as individuals, and all that we have been uſed to conſider as great, mighty and powerful, is humbled with the duſt.

The public events of the paſt year, evince the narrow conceptions of human wiſdom; the wiſeſt of us can conjecture and reaſon in little matters, but all great and extraordinary convulſions are beyond our graſp. We ſtand ſtill, and wonder; we hope without reaſon, or deſpair in ſilence, but all our active powers are weakened. The beſt we can do is to act our individual parts with firmneſs and integrity; the beſt we can hope is that the dreadful events we have witneſſed, may be yet over-ruled by Providence for the vindication of divine mercy and wiſdom, and the happineſs of the human race. The plan of eternal wiſdom is too great for us to comprehend; we ſee it but in ſmall parts, in the ſcattered fragments of hiſtory; but we have no guide to futurity; whether the preſent convulſions are quickly to terminate in peace and order, or whether war and anarchy are to remain as a laſting ſcourge on the inhabitants of Europe, God only knows.

In our individual capacity, we may reflect with more advantage, becauſe with

with more certainty on what has fallen to our own lot, or come within our obſervation ſince the commencement of that year, which will have concluded before the preſent remarks can reach the eye that now reads them. We can no doubt recollect that we have all ſome advantage to be grateful for, ſome affliction to deplore, or ſome folly to regret. If in ſuch reflections, we can diſcover the error which haſtened our diſappointment, or the wiſdom which promoted our intereſt; if we ſhall learn to avoid the one, and cultivate the other in the future actions of our lives, we have in ſome meaſure redeemed our loſt time. That man has not lived in vain who has lived to be wiſer, whoſe every ſucceeding year is marked by a caution, drawn from the miſcarriages of that which preceded.

The precepts of human wiſdom are few; they are eaſily retained in the memory, and if duly practiſed have never diſappointed the moſt ſanguine expectation. But if we obſerve the actions of others, we ſhall not be of opinion that to ſpeak well, and to act wiſely are one and the ſame thing. We have ſeen ſome around us who commenced the year in health and proſperity, debaſed by ſudden affliction into ſituations the moſt pitiable, becauſe without all remedy. The rapid and certain progreſs of intemperate vices on individuals and families, cannot have eſcaped our obſervation. That private vices ſhould encreaſe with public calamities, and that when men ought to be moſt thoughtful, moſt prudent, and moſt circumſpect, they ſhould contemptuouſly make a parade of licentiouſneſs, and a mockery of economy, is a paradox which requires no proof, and can admit of no ſolution. But who that has contemplated the domeſtic incidents of the paſt year, can doubt that a ſpecies of profligate infatuation is ſpreading its ravages far and wide; avaricious ſpeculation has taken the place of patient induſtry; the manners of the licentious have been made to aſſimilate with thoſe of the gentleman; and the relative duties of life are performed with coldneſs, or neglected with contempt. Human life is ſhortened by the means given for its ſupport; and happineſs is trifled with as a thing of no moment, or exchanged for temporary gratifications, which are connected with ſhame, diſhonour, and miſery.

The moſt obvious truth in nature is the ſhortneſs and uncertainty of life; and the moſt ſimple duty is to be mindful of this truth. But it would appear that the great buſineſs of our lives is to ward off all thoughts of that, 'which is appointed to all men,' to which all men are continually expoſed, and from which neither wiſdom nor piety can entertain a wiſh to be exempted. Many, who in the courſe of laſt year have had to lament the death of ſome valued friend or relative, are nevertheleſs apt to conſider that as a thing which belongs to another, and not to themſelves. The impreſſion it leaves is momentary. To mix again in the world is to forget it.

'All men think all men mortal, but themſelves;
Themſelves, when ſome alarming ſhock of fate,
Strikes thro' their wounded hearts the ſudden dread;
But their hearts wounded, like the wounded air,
Soon cloſe, where paſt the ſhaft, no trace is found:
As, from the wing no ſcar the ſky retains;
The parted wave no furrow from the keel;
So dies in human hearts the thought of death:
Even with the tender tear which nature ſheds
O'er thoſe we love, we drop it in their grave.'

It is not eaſy to account, upon rational principles, why men are afraid to truſt themſelves with the thoughts of death. They may, perhaps, think that it will tend to embitter the enjoyments of life. What fallacy is here! What a poor and lame attempt to conceal from ourſelves and from the

world, that such enjoyments are not to be justified. No man ever repented that he had studied how to die; no man's happiness was ever impaired by reflecting on the mutability of all human things. On the contrary, they only can be happy and cheerful, who, by indulging in such contemplations, have learned to undervalue the boisterous mirth of the wanton, and the thoughtless licentiousness of the wicked. Half of those things on which men fix their affections are indeed the sources of all their misery, because they will not stand the test of sober reason and reflection. Can any man, who knows how little satisfaction riches bring, and that the smallest accident may deprive him of them, wade through crimes and hypocrisy, pervert his intellects, and expose his character, in order to get possession of them. When a magnificent house and grounds were shown to Dr. Johnson, he said, *all this makes death terrible!* Terrible, indeed, to one who confines his happiness to the short span of human life, and forgets that we have 'no abiding place here.'

In recollecting, therefore, the events of the past year, it will be our wisdom to keep in mind that the decrees of Providence are immutable, that whatever may be the fate of nations and of empires, the *duty of man* never varies. It is simple in its nature, easy to be performed, and interrupted only by concerns which, in the eyes of a wise man, have no moment. The true way to be emancipated from half the cares of life, is to distinguish between those which are connected with our obligations, and those which arise from our evil habits. If we once bring our minds to acknowledge and feel, that there is nothing of greater value in this life than the favour of the Creator; nothing calculated to promote our happiness, and exalt us to the dignity of rational beings, unless the purity of a spotless mind, we shall look with serenity on those perverse and anxious affairs, which embroil half of mankind in sorrow and vice. What is it that gives one man the superiority over another in all vicissitudes? It is contentment with the lot in which we are placed, and a consciousness that we have not intentionally done any thing to bring on affliction or distress. What is it that renders men, equal in every other respect, to differ so widely in the article of happiness, but that one man has learned the true enjoyment of his advantages, in promoting the happiness of others as well as of himself, while his neighbour has studied only to pervert them, to be ungrateful to heaven, and useless to mankind.

As a *people*, none surely can be more interested in the awful dispensations of Providence in a neighbouring kingdom, than ourselves. If we deplore the many crimes, the murders, the wanton excess of bloodshed, the abandoned impiety of a people despising religion, and treating the Deity with a marked contempt; if we look back with pity to the fate of those once ennobled and high personages, who have experienced the most dreadful and humiliating reverse of fortune, who have fallen from a throne *to scarcely a grave*; if these events engage our regret, our pity, our abhorrence, let us temper those passions with cool reflection. Are *we*, as a nation, so pure, so immaculate, as to have no cause for alarm? Have we so long enjoyed the blessings of peace and liberty, of commerce, of science, and religion, under the permission of a beneficent Creator, that we may venture, if not in words, at least in deeds, to throw off all regard to the duties he has imposed, and to the worship he has commanded? Let us recollect that all the crimes of a neighbouring nation which we deplore, have arisen from ungovernable passions, and the want of a pure and benign religion; and let us examine how much *we* have done to curb the one and promote the other. The importance of this reflection was ably demonstrated by many of the clergy, on the day lately appointed for the

purpoſe, and, it is hoped, not without producing ſuitable effects.

It is natural for us, indeed, in caſes of public or private calamity, to fly to religion as a reſource; but if we deſpiſe it in the day of proſperity, it may be doubted whether its conſolations will be extended to us when we moſt need them. Life is ſhort, but not too ſhort to contract habits of goodneſs and wiſdom, nor too ſhort to perform the duties enjoined us as Chriſtians. We have reached the concluſion of a moſt eventful year. What the next may produce, is known only to the great diſpoſer of events. All that we know is our duty; all that we can do is to perform it.

For the reflections in this paper, the writer has no apology to offer; he is confident that many will not think them impertinent, and that ſome will acknowledge their propriety. If he has repeated truths which are univerſally known, let it be remembered that they are not ſo felt as to be univerſally practiſed. The writer and the reader are not far diſtant. 'A few years only can divide the eye that is now reading from the hand that has written. This awful truth, however obvious, and however reiterated, is yet frequently forgotten; for, ſurely, if we did not loſe our remembrance, or at leaſt our ſenſibility, that view would always predominate in our lives, which alone can afford us comfort when we die *.' C.

On the REALITY, BEAUTY, IMPORTANCE, *and* NECESSITY *of* RELIGION.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

The following Letter, which has recently appeared in the Morning Chronicle, is attributed to Mrs. Barbauld. *The Sentiments it contains are at once ſo rational, ſo beautiful, and affecting, that I wiſh to ſee it preſerved in your Miſcellany. The Philoſophers of France, in their Zeal to extirpate Religion, have not adverted to the excellent Conſiderations which this Letter ſo happily illuſtrates; but they will come home to every Heart, whenever a Time of Tranquillity ſhall arrive, and the Voice of true Wiſdom can be heard. I am, Sir, &c.*

CRITO.

A FRIEND of mine, who pretends to have very good information from the Continent, communicated to me the following account. I confeſs I think it comes in a ſhape a little queſtionable; however, I ſend it you juſt as my friend read it to me, from a private letter, which he ſaid he had juſt received.

A few days after the archbiſhop of Paris and his vicars had ſet the example of renouncing their clerical character, a rector, from a village on the banks of the Rhone, followed by ſome of his pariſhioners, with an offering of gold and ſilver ſaints, chalices, rich veſtments, &c. preſented himſelf at the bar of the convention. The ſight of the gold put that aſſembly in a very good humour, and the rector, a thin venerable looking man, with grey hairs, was ordered to ſpeak. I come, ſaid he, from the village of —— where the only good building ſtanding (for the Chateau has been pulled down) is a very fine church. My pariſhioners beg you will take it, to make an hoſpital for the ſick and wounded of both parties, they being both equally our countrymen. The gold and ſilver, part of which we have brought you, they intreat you will devote to the ſervice of the ſtate, and that you will caſt the bells into cannon to drive away its foreign invaders. For myſelf, I am come, with great pleaſure, to reſign my letters of ordination, of induction, and every deed

* Hawkeſworth.

and

and title, by which I have been conſtituted a member of your eccleſiaſtical polity. Here are the papers; you may burn them, if you pleaſe, in the ſame fire with the genealogical trees and patents of the nobility. I deſire, likewiſe, that you will diſcontinue my ſalary. I am ſtill able to ſupport myſelf by the labour of my hands; and I beg you to believe that I never felt ſincerer joy than I now do in making this renunciation. I have longed to ſee this day; I ſee it, and am glad.

When the old man had done ſpeaking, the applauſes were immoderate. You are an honeſt man, ſaid they, all at once; a brave fellow, you do not believe in God; and the preſident advanced to give him the fraternal embrace. The rector did not ſeem greatly elated with theſe tokens of approbation: he retired back a few ſteps, and thus reſumed his diſcourſe. Before you applaud my ſentiments, it is fit you ſhould underſtand them; perhaps, they may not entirely coincide with your own. I rejoice in this day, not becauſe I wiſh to ſee religion degraded, but, becauſe I wiſh to ſee it exalted and purified. By diſſolving its alliance with the ſtate, you have given it dignity and independence. You have done it a piece of ſervice which its well wiſhers would perhaps never have had courage to render it, but which is the only thing wanted to make it appear in its genuine beauty and luſtre. Nobody will now ſay of me, when I am performing the offices of my religion; it is his trade, he is paid for telling the people ſuch and ſuch things; he is hired to keep up a uſeful piece of mummery. They cannot now ſay this; and therefore I feel myſelf raiſed in my own eſteem, and ſhall ſpeak to them with a confidence and frankneſs, which, before this, I never durſt venture to aſſume. We reſign without reluctance our gold and ſilver images and embroidered veſtments, becauſe we have never found that looking upon gold and ſilver made the heart more pure, or the affections more heavenly; we can alſo ſpare our churches, for the heart that wiſhes to lift itſelf up to God will never be at a loſs for room to do it in; but we cannot ſpare our religion, becauſe, to tell you the truth, we never had ſo much occaſion for it. I underſtand that you accuſe us prieſts of having told the people a great many falſehoods. I ſuſpect this may have been the caſe, but till this day we have never been allowed to enquire whether the things which we taught them were true or not. You required us formerly to receive them all without proof, and you now would have us reject them all without diſcrimination; neither of theſe modes of conduct become philoſophers, ſuch as you would be thought to be. I am going to employ myſelf diligently, along with my pariſhioners, to ſift the wheat from the bran, the true from the falſe: if we are not ſucceſsful we ſhall be at leaſt ſincere. I do fear, indeed, that while I wore theſe veſtments which we have brought you, and ſpoke in that large gloomy building which we have given up to you, I told my poor flock a great many idle ſtories. I cannot but hope, however, that the errors we have fallen into have not been very material, ſince the village has in general been ſober and good; the peaſants are honeſt, docile and laborious; the huſbands love their wives, and the wives their huſbands; they are fortunately not too rich to be compaſſionate, and they have conſtantly relieved the ſick and fugitives of all parties whenever it has lain in their way. I think, therefore, what I have taught them cannot be ſo very much amiſs. You want to extirpate prieſts, but will you hinder the ignorant from applying for inſtruction, the unhappy for comfort and hope, the unlearned from looking up to the learned? If you do not, you will have prieſts, by whatever name you may order them to be called; but it is certainly not neceſſary they ſhould wear a particular dreſs, or be appointed by ſtate letters of ordination. My letters of ordination are my zeal,

my charity, my ardent love for my dear children of the village; if I were more learned I would add my knowledge, but alas! we all know very little; to man every error is pardonable but want of humility. We have a public walk, with a ſpreading elm-tree at one end of it, and a circle of green round it, with a convenient bench. Here I ſhall draw together the children as they are playing around me. I ſhall point to the vines laden with fruit, to the orchards, to the herds of cattle lowing around us, to the diſtant hills ſtretching one behind another, and they will aſk me, how came all theſe things? I ſhall tell them all I know or have heard from wiſe men who have lived before me; they will be penetrated with love and veneration; they will kneel, I ſhall kneel with them; they will not be at my feet, but all of us at the feet of that Good Being, whom we ſhall worſhip together, and thus they will receive within their tender minds a religion.—The old men will come ſometimes from having depoſited under the green ſod one of their companions, and place themſelves by my ſide; they will look wiſhfully at the turf, and anxiouſly enquire—is he gone for ever? Shall we ſoon be like him? Will no morning break over the tomb?—When the wicked ceaſe from troubling, will the good ceaſe from doing good? We will talk of theſe things: I will comfort them. I will tell them of the goodneſs of God; I will ſpeak to them of a life to come; I will bid them hope for a ſtate of retribution.—In a clear night, when the ſtars ſlide over our heads, they will aſk what thoſe bright bodies are, and by what rules they riſe and ſet? And we will converſe about different forms of being, and diſtant worlds in the immenſity of ſpace, governed by the ſame laws, till we feel our minds raiſed from what is groveling, and refined from what is ſordid. You talk of nature, this is nature; and if you could at this moment extinguiſh religion in the minds of all the world, thus would it be kindled again, and thus again excite the curioſity and intereſt the feelings of mankind. You have changed our holy-days; you have an undoubted right, as our civil governors, ſo to do; it is very immaterial whether they are kept once in ſeven days, or once in ten; ſome, however, you will leave us, and when they occur, I ſhall tell thoſe who chuſe to hear me, of the beauty and utility of virtue, of the dignity of right conduct. We ſhall talk of good men who have lived in the world, and of the doctrines they taught; and if any of them have been perſecuted and put to death for their virtue, we ſhall reverence their memories the more.—I hope in all this there is no harm. There is a book out of which I have ſometimes taught my people; it ſays we are to love thoſe who do us hurt, and to pour oil and wine into the wounds of the ſtranger. It has enabled my children to bear patiently the ſpoiling of their goods, and to give up their own intereſt for the general welfare. I think it cannot be a very bad book. I wiſh more of it had been read in your town: perhaps you would not have had quite ſo many aſſaſſinations and maſſacres. In this book we hear of a perſon called Jeſus; ſome worſhip him as a God; others, as I am told, ſay it is wrong to do ſo;—ſome teach that he exiſted before the beginning of ages; others, that he was born of Joſeph and Mary. I cannot tell whether theſe controverſies will ever be decided; but, in the mean time, I think we cannot do otherwiſe than well in imitating him, for I learn that he loved the poor, and went about doing good.

Fellow-citizens, as I travelled hither from my own village, I ſaw peaſants ſitting among the ſmoking ruins of their cottages; rich men and women reduced to deplorable poverty; fathers lamenting their children in the bloom and pride of youth; and I ſaid to myſelf, Theſe people cannot afford to part with their religion. But indeed you cannot take it away; if,

contrary to your firſt declaration, you chuſe to try the experiment of perſecuting it, you will only make us prize it more, and love it better. Religion, true or falſe, is ſo neceſſary to the mind of man, that even you have already begun to make yourſelves a new one. You are ſowing the ſeeds of ſuperſtition at the moment you fancy you are deſtroying ſuperſtition, and in two or three generations your poſterity will be worſhipping ſome clumſy idol, with the rites, perhaps, of a bloody Moloch, or a laſcivious Thamuſur. It was not worth while to have been philoſophers and to have deſtroyed the images of our ſaints for this; but let every one chuſe the religion that pleaſes him; I and my pariſhioners are content with ours; it teaches us to bear the evils your childiſh or ſanguinary decrees have helped to bring upon the country.

The rector turned his footſteps homeward, and the convention looked for ſome minutes on one another, before *they reſumed their work of blood.*

Intereſting PARTICULARS *of the* BEHAVIOUR *of the late King of* France, *after his Condemnation: With* OBSERVATIONS *on the* CONDUCT *of the* National Convention *toward that unfortunate Monarch.*

[From Dr. Moore's Journal during a Reſidence in France, Vol. II.]

AFTER the national convention had finally determined the fate of the king, on the 19th of January 1793, at midnight, the executive council were ordered to notify this to the king the day following, and that the execution was to take place within twenty-four hours of the notification. It was decreed, at the ſame time, that he ſhould be allowed free communication with his family, and to have any eccleſiaſtic he pleaſed to attend him.

The executive council, of which Garat, the miniſter of juſtice was preſident, met on the morning of the 20th. He, with two other members of the council, and the ſecretary, ſet out for the Temple, where they arrived at two.

Being introduced into the king's apartment, Garat, who was greatly agitated, ſaid with a faltering voice—'Louis, the executive council is ordered to notify to you the decree which the national convention paſſed laſt night.'

The ſecretary began to read the decree. In the preamble, the king is charged with having *conſpired againſt the general ſafety of the nation.* He was ſhocked at the idea, and repeated the expreſſion with emotion. The ſecretary, who had pauſed, reſumed, and the king heard the reſt, including the ſentence, with calmneſs.

When the ſecretary had finiſhed, the king took a paper from his pocket, the contents of which he informed them of, and deſired the miniſter of juſtice to preſent it to the executive council.

Garat informed him, that the council could not decide on the ſubjects of his demands, but that he would immediately carry them to the convention, who had already agreed to ſome of them.

He went accordingly, and read to the aſſembly the paper which the king had given him.

It contained a requeſt of a reſpite of three days, that he might prepare himſelf for appearing in the preſence of God: and for that purpoſe, that he might be freely viſited by a perſon, whoſe name he would mention to the commiſſioners.

That he might be freed from their inſpection during the interval allowed him to live.

That he might have free communication with his family.

That the national convention would permit his family to withdraw from France to any other country they choſe.

choſe. Finally, he recommended to the generoſity of the nation a number of old ſervants, many of whom had nothing to live on but the penſions he had allowed them.

When the miniſter of juſtice returned to the Temple, he informed the king, that the convention acquieſced in moſt of his demands; he gave a favourable interpretation to the general anſwer which had been given to that reſpecting the lot of his family, but added, that *the delay was refuſed.*

'Allons,' ſaid the king, 'il faut ſe ſoumettre.—I muſt ſubmit then.'

There is ſomething infinitely harſh and revolting to humanity in the refuſal of this laſt requeſt; which there is every reaſon to believe, from the character and conduct of the king, proceeded from the pious motive which he aſſigned—and not, as his enemies have ſuggeſted, from a weak deſire of prolonging a wretched exiſtence.

Should it be the fate of any of thoſe men who rejected this requeſt of the unfortunate monarch, ever to be in ſimilar circumſtances, as they will have more need of it than he had, I ſincerely hope that they will be allowed more than three days to prepare themſelves for eternity.

When the miniſter of juſtice had retired, the king gave to one of the commiſſioners a letter addreſſed to Mr. Edgeworth, who was the perſon he wiſhed to attend him in his laſt moments.

Mr. Edgeworth's father was originally a proteſtant clergyman of a good family in Ireland, who was converted to the Roman catholic religion, and had eſtabliſhed himſelf in France, where he bred his ſon as an eccleſiaſtic, in the faith which he himſelf preferred.—The ſon recommended himſelf ſo much by his good conduct and excellent character, that he was choſen by the princeſs Eliſabeth as her confeſſor; by which means he became known to, and highly eſteemed by, the king; of which he gave the ſtrongeſt proof, by ſending for him on this awful occaſion.

The king's letter was carried to Mr. Edgeworth by three ſoldiers, ſent by the council of the commune. The contents of the letter were requeſting his attendance; but if he found himſelf, from apprehenſion of the conſequence, or any other cauſe, averſe to come, entreating him to find another prieſt who had not the ſame reluctance.

Mr. Edgeworth informed the ſoldiers, that he would attend them directly to the Temple. His mother and ſiſter were then at a ſmall diſtance from Paris; he deſired madame d'Argouge, a relation with whom he lived when in town, not to inform them of what had happened, becauſe he ſaw that lady herſelf greatly alarmed, and feared that ſhe might communicate her apprehenſions to them.

Mr. Edgeworth was conducted firſt before the council in the Temple, and then to the king. On his being introduced, he inſtantly ſhowed ſuch marks of reſpect and ſenſibility as affected the unfortunate prince ſo much, that he burſt into tears, and was for ſome moments unable to ſpeak: at length he ſaid—'Excuſe me, Mr. Edgeworth, I have not been accuſtomed of late to the company of men like you.'

After paſſing ſome time with his confeſſor, the king thought he had acquired ſufficient fortitude to bear an interview with his family. The queen, princeſs Eliſabeth, with the prince and princeſs royal, were conducted to his apartment. They continued near three hours together—No tragic poet has imagined a ſcene more affecting than what was realized at this interview—The actors, ſo lately placed in the moſt brilliant ſituation that the world can give—hurled from the ſummit of human ſplendor to the depth of human miſery. A ſiſter, children, and a wife, in a priſon, taking their laſt leave of a brother, father, and huſband, rendered more dear than ever by his paſt ſufferings,

ferings, their common calamity, and the dreadful fate awaiting him the following day.

The king, though affected at different times beyond the power of expreſſion, retained his recollection to the laſt. When they were to ſeparate, the princeſs Eliſabeth mentioned their hopes of ſeeing him again in the morning. He allowed her to expect it. The queen could liſten to no words of comfort. No conſideration could prevent her from pouring forth her indignation in the moſt violent expreſſions againſt the enemies of her huſband. In the bitterneſs of her ſoul ſhe beat her breaſt and tore her hair; and her ſcreams were heard at intervals, all that night of agony and horror.

After his family had withdrawn, the king remained for ſome time with his eyes fixed on the ground without ſpeaking; then with a profound ſigh he pronounced—'Ce moment étoit terrible.—This moment is dreadful.'

I have it from the beſt authority, that after his family were withdrawn, the miſery of his own fate did not engroſs his mind ſo entirely as to exclude all ſolicitude for the fate of others; he enquired in a moſt affectionate manner of Mr. Edgeworth, for ſeveral whom he conſidered as his friends, and particularly for the eccleſiaſtics, who had been perſecuted with the greateſt cruelty; and expreſſed ſatisfaction at hearing that many of them had eſcaped to England, where they were received with kindneſs and hoſpitality.

Mr. Edgeworth prevailed on him to go to bed for four hours.

He roſe at five; and expreſſing an inclination to hear maſs, Mr. Edgeworth informed the council who were ſitting in the Temple of the king's requeſt. Some difficulties were made, which Mr. Edgeworth removed, ſaying that the uſual ornaments and all that was requiſite for the ceremony could be procured from a neighbouring church.

Mr. Edgeworth ſhowing great ſolicitude that the king ſhould be gratified, one of the commiſſioners ſaid, he had heard of people who had been poiſoned in taking the ſacrament.

To this horrid inſinuation Mr. Edgeworth made no other reply, than by calmly reminding him that the committee were to procure the hoſt.

What was neceſſary was provided. Mr. Edgeworth ſaid maſs, and adminiſtered the ſacrament to the king; and then mentioned that his family expected to ſee him before he left the Temple. The king, fearing that he had not ſufficient firmneſs for a ſecond interview, wiſhed to ſpare them the agony of ſuch a ſcene, and therefore declined it.

At half an hour after eight Santerre came and informed him that he had received orders to conduct him to the place of execution. After paſſing three minutes in private with his confeſſor, he came to the outer room where Santerre had remained, and addreſſing him, ſaid, 'Marchons, je ſuis prêt.—Let us go; I am ready.' In deſcending to the court, he begged the commiſſioners to recommend certain perſons who were in his ſervice to the commune; after which, not imagining that Mr. Edgeworth intended to accompany him any further, he was bidding him adieu. But the other ſaid, his attendance was not over. 'What,' ſaid the king, 'do you intend to adhere to me ſtill?' 'Yes,' replied the confeſſor, 'to the laſt.'

The king walked through the court with a firm ſtep, and entered the mayor's coach, followed by Mr. Edgeworth, a municipal officer, and two officers of the national guards.

The king recited the prayers for perſons in the agonies of death during the conveyance from the Temple to the Place de la Révolution, formerly the Place de Louis XV.

When the carriage ſtopped at the ſcaffold, the king ſaid—'Nous voici donc arrivé.—We are come to it.' He pulled off his coat, unbuttoned the neck of his ſhirt, aſcended the ſcaffold with

with ſteadineſs, and ſurveyed for a few moments the immenſe multitude; then approaching the edge, as there was a good deal of noiſe, he made a motion with his hand for ſilence, which inſtantly took place*—then ſpeaking with a raiſed voice, he ſaid 'Francais, je meurs innocent. Je pardonne à tous mes ennemis, et je ſouhaite que la France——Frenchmen, I die innocent. I forgive all my enemies, and I wiſh that France ——'

Santerre, who was on horſeback near the ſcaffold, made a ſignal for the drums to beat, and for the executioners to perform their office. The king's voice was drowned in the noiſe of the drums.

Three executioners then approached to ſeize him: at the ſight of a cord, with which one of them attempted to tie his arms, the king for the firſt time ſhowed ſigns of indignation, and as if he was going to reſiſt. Mr. Edgeworth put him in mind that the Saviour of Mankind had allowed his arms to be tied: he no ſooner pronounced this, than the king became paſſive as a lamb. The executioners laid hold of him, and placed him on the guillotine. The confeſſor then kneeling with his face near to that of the king, pronounced aloud—'Enfant de ſaint Louis, montez au ciel.—Son of St. Louis, aſcend to heaven.' The blow was given—Mr. Edgeworth's face was ſprinkled with the king's blood. The executioner walked round the ſcaffold, holding up the head to be ſeen by the people. A few, who had probably been hired for the purpoſe, cried 'Vive la Nation! Vive la Republique!—Long live the Nation! Long live the Republic!'

Thus did the French nation, who had endured the cruelties of Louis the Eleventh, the treachery of Charles the Ninth, and the tyranny of Louis the Fourteenth, condemn and execute for the pretended crimes of cruelty, treachery, and tyranny, the mildeſt, moſt juſt, and leaſt tyrannical prince that ever ſat on their throne.

Let us conſider the conduct of the convention with regard to the king, and decide whether it can be reconciled to good ſenſe, juſtice, or humanity.

When the deputies firſt met and formed a national convention, they knew that a moſt extraordinary event had happened; that the palace of their king had been attacked; that many citizens had been killed, and almoſt all his guards ſlaughtered; that the king himſelf with all his family had been thrown into priſon, where they ſtill remained; and that their duty, as the repreſentatives of the nation, was to inveſtigate the cauſes of this extraordinary event, and to puniſh the guilty.

The convention were informed by thoſe *who had planned and directed* the attack on the palace, 'That the citizens had been wantonly fired on by the guards, in conſequence of orders from the king; that the king was betraying the country to an invading army, with the leaders of which he was in correſpondence; and that unleſs he had been attacked and impriſoned, the nation would have been enſlaved.'

Having heard this accuſation, it

* It has been ſaid that the ſerenity which the king ſhowed at his death, did not proceed wholly from the ſupport he derived from religion, but was partly owing to the hope he entertained to the laſt, even when on the ſcaffold, that his life would be ſaved by the people, and that his confeſſor encouraged him in this hope.

Nothing can be more improbable than this ſtory. Had the king entertained any ſuch hope, it muſt ſtill have been intermingled with fear; and ſuch a ſtate of mind, inſtead of calmneſs, was more likely to produce agitation.

The whole of his behaviour ſhows a manly and chriſtian reſignation to a fate which he thought inevitable, and proves that his hopes were removed from earth to heaven.

The character of Mr. Edgeworth precludes him from the ſuſpicion of having encouraged a hope which would have diſturbed that turn of mind which it was his duty to promote and cheriſh in the king.

was natural to have imagined that the convention would, in the next place, have wiſhed to know the king's account of theſe tranſactions, that they might be the better able to judge which account was the moſt probable, and the beſt ſupported by known and incontrovertible facts.

One fact they muſt have known, namely, that when the king had reaſon to believe that his palace was to be attacked, he ſent for the mayor of Paris and other civil officers to be near his perſon, and to be witneſſes of his conduct.

From this it was to be preſumed, that the king wiſhed to avoid force, and if he ſhould be driven to the neceſſity of uſing it, that it ſhould be under the direction of the civil magiſtrate.

The convention might have recollected, that although one of the many evils which are inherent in a *deſpotic* government, be, that there is no door to freedom but through inſurrection; yet the moderate and equitable character of Louis XVI, had early inclined him to ſuch alterations in the old ſyſtem, as would gradually have united the prerogatives of limited monarchy with the rights of free men.

Such conſiderations, with a moderate ſhare of candour and gratitude, one would imagine, would have made them ſuſpend their belief in the full extent of the crimes imputed to the king; and at all events have prevented their giving a deciſion injurious to him, till he was heard, and till as many of their brother deputies as were expected had arrived. Inſtead of this, they thought proper, on the very firſt day of their meeting, when not above half of their number had arrived, without hearing the king, to pronounce the ſevereſt ſentence againſt him which they had a right by the conſtitution to have done, even if all of which he was accuſed had been clearly proved *.

They next proceed with more deliberation, to determine whether the king may not ſtill be tried for his life.

The inviolability with which the conſtitution had inveſted the monarch, was, in the minds of many of the deputies, an inſurmountable objection to this meaſure.

It might have been imagined, that if the terms in which this inviolability was expreſſed by the conſtitution had been obſcure and ſomewhat dubious, ſtill it would have been becoming in the legiſlators of a great nation to have explained them in the moſt favourable ſenſe for their unfortunate monarch: there was no room, however, for their exerciſing their generoſity in this manner; for the terms are as clear as language can make them.

This had no effect on a majority of the deputies, who declared, that they conſidered the inviolability as a mere chimera, which ought not to be regarded.

The reaſoning by which they ſupported this propoſition will appear extraordinary. 'The conſtitution,' ſay they, 'could only render the king inviolable while he was king, but it can have no ſuch effect now that royalty is aboliſhed; and therefore we may now with propriety try him as a private citizen.'

According to the military law and cuſtom of ſome countries, an officer of the army may be condemned to loſe his commiſſion, and to ſerve in the ranks for certain crimes, for which a common ſoldier would be condemned to undergo a corporal puniſhment;—but nothing ſo unjuſt was ever thought of, as firſt to make the officer ſuffer the puniſhment appointed by the military code for his crime as an officer, and afterwards, on the pretence of his being a common ſoldier, to inflict a ſecond puniſhment for the ſame crime.

Other deputies reaſon in this manner:

The inviolability is very good in ordinary caſes, but it is of no uſe in

* Abolition of Royalty.

the preſent. The people are ſovereign, independent of the conſtitution, and cannot be bound by any law made by the conſtitution.—Louis XVI n'étoit roi que par la conſtitution: la nation etoit ſouverain ſans conſtitution et ſans roi *.—Louis XVI was king by virtue of the conſtitution only: the nation was ſovereign without either conſtitution or king.

Thus that metaphyſical monarch, le peuple ſouverain, is conjured up, on convenient occaſions, to anſwer for every kind of injuſtice and cruelty:—he was at one time declared to be the author of the maſſacres of the priſoners, on purpoſe to ſcreen the real murderers; and in this inſtance he is brought forward to annihilate the moſt ſolemn and ſacred of all obligations.

The committee who formed the decree of accuſation againſt the king, ſeem to have been very much perplexed, on account of the force and preciſion in which his inviolability is declared by the conſtitution. Mailhe, who preſented it in their name to the convention, after repeating this embarraſſing article, ſays, with ſome degree of paſſion, 'Cela veut-il dire que le roi, tant qu'il ſeroit aſſez adroit pour éluder les cas de la déchéance, pourroit impunément s'abandonner aux paſſions les plus féroces, et ſeroit-il quitte pour la perte d'un ſceptre qui lui étoit odieux, parce qu'il n'etoit pas de fer?—Which is as much as to ſay, that ſo long as the king had the addreſs to elude the caſes in which the penalty of forfeiture was decreed, he might abandon himſelf to the moſt ferocious paſſions: And ſhould he get clear with only the loſs of a ſceptre, which was odious to him, becauſe it was not of iron?

Without taking notice of the falſe and childiſh exaggerations which his queſtion inſinuates, Mailhe may be anſwered, that if the king had the addreſs to elude all the caſes to which the conſtitution has affixed the pain of forfeiture of the crown, he certainly ought not to forfeit it—and if Mailhe himſelf were on his trial for murder or robbery, and it clearly appeared, that the accuſation was falſe, or, to uſe Mailhe's expreſſion, that he had had the addreſs to elude thoſe crimes, I confeſs I ſhould be for acquitting him; for whatever may be the opinion and practice in France, I adhere to the old notion, that a man, who has the addreſs to be innocent, ought not to be puniſhed as guilty.

Nothing can be more unworthy, than for the legiſlators of a nation to attempt to explain away the obvious meaning of a propoſition ſo clearly expreſſed, as that relating to the king's inviolability is by the French conſtitution; and the arguments they have uſed are as ſophiſtical as the attempt is unbecoming. For my own part, I do not think it extravagant to queſtion, whether Louis XVI would have accepted of the conſtitution, had the inviolability been explained to him *then*, in the manner which it is *now* explained. I am convinced he would not, if he had thought that Danton, Robeſpierre, Legendre, and Marat were, in any preſumable caſe, to be his judges.

But had all objections founded on the inviolability of the king's perſon been removed, were it clear that he might have been tried and dealt with as a private citizen, for crimes laid to his charge as a king; ſtill the convention, as it was compoſed, could not, with any colour of impartiality, be conſidered as a proper tribunal for his trial: to have rendered it ſuch, it would have been neceſſary to remove all thoſe who had in print, or from the tribune, declared themſelves convinced of his guilt, or in any way manifeſted a deſire that he ſhould be executed. What poſſibility is there, for example, that the king's innocence ſhould be proved to Saint-Juſt, deputy for the department of l'Aiſne, who, in the diſcourſe he read to the convention, ſays, 'Le procés doit être fait au roi, non point pour le crime de ſon

* Rap. de Mailhe, 7 November 1792.

admi-

adminiſtration, mais pour le crime d'avoir été roi: on ne peut point regner innocemment. Tout roi n'eſt qu un rebelle et un uſurpateur.—The king ought to be tried, not for the crime of his adminiſtration, but for the crime of being a king; it is impoſſible to reign without guilt. Every king is either a rebel or an uſurper!' And Robeſpierre, in the ſociety of jacobins, where there were ſeveral who had been members of the legiſlative aſſembly, and were then of the convention, ſaid, 'that if the king were abſolved, *they* muſt of courſe be conſidered and puniſhed as rebels.' Were ſuch men impartial judges?

And if the objections to particular deputies were entirely removed, one ſolid one remains againſt the whole aſſembly, namely, that being the king's accuſers, they were diſqualified from being his jury or judges.

When we next come to conſider the nature of the proofs in ſupport of the accuſation, and the manner in which they were obtained, the force of the objections againſt them is obvious and ſtriking. The papers found in the king's cabinet on the 10th of Auguſt, and thoſe afterward diſcovered in the iron cheſt in the wall of the Tuileries, are not fair and legal evidence—becauſe papers may have been introduced and mixed with the others by the king's enemies; becauſe papers may have been loſt or removed which would have explained and accounted for what appears criminal in others; becauſe a perſon's having criminal papers in his cuſtody, is no proof that he approves of, or is even acquainted with their contents; and ſtill leſs of his intending to adopt the opinions, or follow the plans or counſels of the writers.

Let us farther ſuppoſe, that all the papers preſented to the convention are the genuine papers found in the king's cloſet, without any having been added or ſubſtracted; ſtill they do not conſtitute a proof of his having formed any ſcheme of deſtroying the conſtitution, or betraying the country to its enemies.

Briſſot in his writings, Louvet and Barbaroux in their ſpeeches in the convention, aſſert, that they, and their aſſociates, brought about the revolution of the 10th of Auguſt, with a view to eſtabliſh a republic. They were ſo preciſe and minute on this important point, as even to particulariſe the place.—It was at Charenton, as they declared, that the meaſure of attacking the king in his palace was determined on; it was at firſt agreed to be on the 29th of July, but afterward poſtponed to the 10th of Auguſt. Danton, Robeſpierre, and Chabot, inſiſt that this honour belongs to them. Petion, who had been ſent for by the king, who was actually in the palace as a civil magiſtrate, and in the character of a mediator, early that morning, was afterward very much hurt, becauſe Robeſpierre inſinuated that he had had very little ſhare in the inſurrection of the 10th of Auguſt. 'Les hommes,' ſays he, in his letter to Robeſpierre, 'qui ſe ſont attribué la gloire de cette journée, ſont les hommes à qui elle appartient le moins; elle eſt due aux braves fédérés, *et à leur directoire ſecret qui concertait depuis long temps le plan de l'inſurrection.*'—The men who have engroſſed the glory of that day are thoſe who have the leaſt right to it: it belongs to the brave federates, and *to their ſecret directory which concerted long before the plan of the inſurrection.*' And in his letter to the ſociety of jacobins he claims his own right to part of the glory: 'Je n'ai pas peu contribué,' ſays Petion, 'à amener la journée du 10 Aout.—I have contributed not a little to the event of the 10th of Auguſt.' After this, how could any men of common ſenſe, and common candour, hear with patience the king accuſed of being the aggreſſor on that occaſion? Yet this was done in the act of accuſation, and repeated by many of the members in their ſpeeches during the proceſs.

Finally, let it be ſuppoſed, that the perſon of the king was not rendered inviolable by the conſtitution; that

the convention was the proper tribunal by which he ought to have been tried; that the papers were unexceptionable evidence: and that the proof againſt him was convincing: after all this has been admitted, ſtill it is clear that it was moſt inexpedient and unwiſe in the national convention to decree his execution, becauſe it would exaſperate many of the princes of Europe; and if it pleaſed any, it would afford even them a pretext for making war with France; thus creating new enemies to their infant republic, and ſtrengthening the hands of the old.

Becauſe the great object of puniſhment is to prevent, and not to avenge crimes; and in a republic the ſame caſe could never again occur.

Becauſe a living and dethroned king would have been leſs intereſting to the public, and therefore leſs formidable to the preſent government of France, than a young prince whoſe character calumny could not touch, and whoſe father had been beheaded.

A French lady, diſtinguiſhed for wit, having remarked the ingenuity of a footman belonging to a man of high quality, who was as ugly and ſtupid as his ſervant was the reverſe, ſaid, 'Il faut avouer que la Nature n'eſt pas ariſtocrate.—It muſt be acknowledged that Nature is not an ariſtocrat.'—If Nature has been partial to democracy, it muſt be confeſſed, however, that the democrates of France have been moſt ungrateful to Nature, by violating all her laws, and wounding all her feelings.

The records of mankind exhibit no example of crimes deliberately committed, attended with ſo many circumſtances of wanton unrelenting cruelty, and ſo evidently pernicious to the cauſe of the perpetrators.

NATURAL HISTORY *of the* BEAVER.

[From the third Volume of a Journal of Tranſactions and Events, during a Reſidence of nearly Sixteen Years on the Coaſt of Labrador, &c. by George Cartwright, Eſq.]

AS all the accounts which I have hitherto read of beavers, are very erroneous, I ſhall here communicate my obſervations on thoſe animals. I ſuppoſe, that none of the writers who have mentioned them, ever ſaw a beaver-houſe, but related only the tales of illiterate furriers, whoſe veracity is not to be depended upon. I tremble at feeling myſelf under the neceſſity of contradicting that celebrated natural hiſtorian Compte de Buffon; yet I muſt take the liberty to do it. He ſays, 'A beaver has a ſcaly tail, becauſe he eats fiſh:' I wonder much that monſieur Buffon had not one himſelf for the ſame reaſon; for I am ſure that he has eaten a great deal more fiſh than all the beavers in the world put together. 'Beavers will neither eat fiſh, nor any other animal food; but live upon the leaves and bark of ſuch trees and ſhrubs as have not a reſinous juice, and the root of the water-lilly. I have known them eat black ſpruce; and they will ſometimes cut down ſilver-fir: but I believe, that is only to build with when other trees are ſcarce. When they eat, they hold their food in their fore paws and ſit up like monkies. In the ſummer time they ramble about very much, paying little regard to their houſes, and will make a bed of ſticks ſhred fine, under a buſh near the water-ſide, and there ſleep: the firſt bed of this kind which I found, I took to be the neſt of a gooſe. If the pond which they lived in the laſt winter, has plenty of ſuch food as they like, growing by the ſide of it, and they have not been diſturbed by man, they will ſeldom quit it; but if there be a ſcarcity of food, they will wander about in ſearch of another, where they

can be more plentifully ſupplied: and it has been long obſerved, that of all trees which grow in Newfoundland or Labrador, they like the aſpen beſt, and next to that the birch. Having found a place convenient for the purpoſe, they commonly begin early in Auguſt to erect their houſe. Their mode of conſtructing it I had from a very intelligent obſerver, John Edwards, who has made the catching of them his whole employment for ſeveral winters; in which time he has killed ſeveral hundreds. He told me, if the pond be deep, cloſe to the bank, and that free from rocks, they begin under water, at the foot of the bank, and ſcoop out a hole, riſing gradually to the ſurface; carrying all the earth which they dig out there to the top, and mix abundance of ſticks and even ſtones among it. The ſticks which they make uſe of on this occaſion, are of all ſizes, from the thickneſs of a man's ankle to his little finger, but very ſeldom of larger dimenſions. They pile up theſe materials in the form of a dome, ſometimes to the height of ſix or ſeven feet above the level of the ground, but commonly not more than four. The baſe is generally of an oval form; the height ten or twelve feet, and eight or nine in width. As they raiſe this pile above, they hollow it out below, taking care that their bed, or lodging place ſhall be above the reach of floods, and ſufficiently roomy to contain the whole family. From the fore part of the houſe, they build a projection into the pond, ſloping downwards all the way, and under this they enter into their houſe. This entrance is called by the furriers, the angle; nor do they always content themſelves with one, but more commonly will have two, and ſometimes three. They have but one apartment, which is termed the lodging, and which is ſhaped in the inside like an oven, the bottom of which is covered with the ſhreds of ſticks, reſembling fine narrow ſhavings. At a little diſtance from the angle, is their magazine of proviſions, which conſiſts of the roots of water-lilly, and the branches of trees; the but-ends of the latter they ſtick into the mud, where there is any. The whole is termed writh, and I have ſeen as much as a cart would hold; great part appeared above water. They are very induſtrious creatures, for even amid a ſuperabundance of proviſions, they will continue to add to the ſtore; and though their houſe be completely built, they will ſtill carry on freſh work, until the pond is frozen firm over; they will even keep a hole open to work on the houſe for ſome nights after, provided the froſt is not very ſevere: and as they will enter every old houſe and do a little work upon it, young furriers are frequently deceived thereby, ſuppoſing thoſe houſes to be inhabited. Although they will ſometimes continue in the ſame pond for three or four years or more, yet they will frequently build themſelves a new houſe every year; at other times they will repair an old one, and live in that; and they often build a new houſe upon, or cloſe, adjoining to an old one, making the two tops into one, and cut a communication between the lodgings: hence, I preſume, aroſe the idea of their having ſeveral apartments. When the pond is not deep enough for them, they will throw a dam acroſs the mouth of the brook, by which it diſcharges its water, to raiſe it to a ſufficient height; making uſe of ſticks, ſtones, mud, and ſand for this purpoſe. Some of theſe I have ſeen of great length and ſtrength, inſomuch that I have walked over them, with the greateſt ſafety, though not quite dry ſhod, if they be new, as the water always ſheds over them, being on an exact level from end to end. But if, notwithſtanding the ſtint, they cannot raiſe the water to a proper depth, near the bank, they build their houſe in the pond, at a few yards diſtance from the ſhore, beginning at the bottom and hollowing it out as they go on, for they muſt have about three feet depth over the end

end of the angle, or the water would freeze in it, and they could go neither in nor out. If there be an iſland in the pond, they generally make their houſe on that, being the ſafeſt place; and by far the greateſt number of houſes are on the north ſhore, for the advantage of the ſun. They have no opening from their houſe on the land ſide, and for theſe reaſons; becauſe the froſty air would enter at that hole and freeze up the water in the angle, whereby they would be cut off from their magazine: the wolves likewiſe and other enemies might enter thereat and kill them; and the cold would be greater than they could bear. For, although they are provided with a thick ſkin, covered with plenty of long, warm fur, they cannot endure ſevere froſt, it being well known that they die if expoſed to it for a ſhort time. By what I have ſaid, the reader will ſuppoſe they are endued with unerring ſagacity, but it is not the caſe; for they have been known to build their houſe in a pond, where there was ſuch a ſcarcity of food, that they have all died for want; or in one, that lay in a flat country, which, by a great thaw in the winter, has been flooded; when they have been obliged to cut a hole through the crown of their lodging, and by ſo doing, and the water freezing in their houſe on the return of the froſt, they have not been able to get into it again, but have all been found dead upon it. At other times, they have lived on a brook, where a thaw has cauſed ſuch a ſtream as has waſhed away all their food, and conſequently ſtarved them. They will often run a ſtint acroſs a narrow valley, through which a ſmall drain of water runs, and where plenty of willows, alders, and ſuch like things grow, and make a pond for themſelves. The furrier has then only to cut the ſtint, and when the water is run off, he kills them all with the greateſt eaſe. As the killing of beavers is an art appertaining to the ſcience of furring, which I do not wiſh to make public, I ſhall ſay no more on that head, except that they are always killed by ſtaking their houſes, by guns, or by traps; and not by hunting them with dogs, by men on horſeback with ſpears, as I have ſeen ridiculouſly deſcribed in prints. Nor do they ever caſtrate themſelves to eſcape their purſuers, for that part is not only of no uſe, but both thoſe, their prides, and oil-bags (the two latter veſſels being common to both ſexes, and the prides only uſed in medicine, known by the name of caſtoreum) lie ſo completely within them, that the operation muſt be performed by a very ſkilful hand indeed, and with the greateſt care, not to kill them. Beſides, what made them acquainted with the cauſe of their being purſued? If their fleſh were not ſuch excellent eating, very few beaver-ſkins would ever come to market. Beavers generally bring forth two young ones at a time, which are moſt commonly male and female; yet they will often have but one, eſpecially the firſt time of breeding; and ſometimes three or four: and I was told by a man of mine (Joſeph Tero) that he once cut ſeven out of an old one. The firſt year they are called pappooſes; the ſecond ſmall medlers; the third large medlers; the fourth beaver: and after that old, or great beaver. They copulate in May, and bring forth toward the end of June. The young ones continue to live with their parents until they are full three years old; then pair off, build a houſe for themſelves, and begin to breed. Yet ſometimes, and not uncommonly, if they are undiſturbed and have plenty of proviſions, they will continue longer with the old ones, and breed in the ſame houſe. They are then called a double crew; and that was the caſe with the family which we found yeſterday. It oftentimes happens that a ſingle beaver lives retired, and it is then ſtyled by furriers, a hermit: they ſay, it is turned out from the family, becauſe it is lazy and will not work; and what is very ſingular (for be the cauſe what it will,

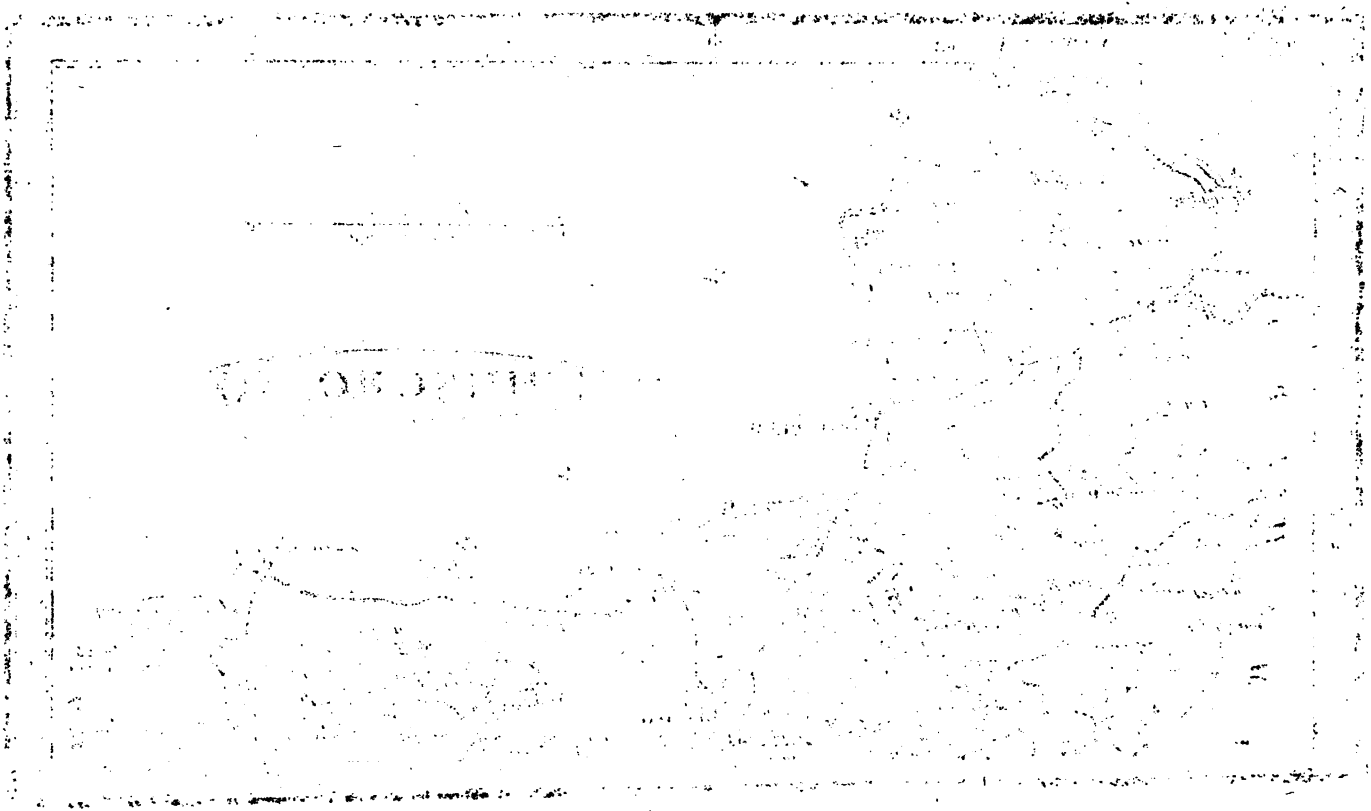
the

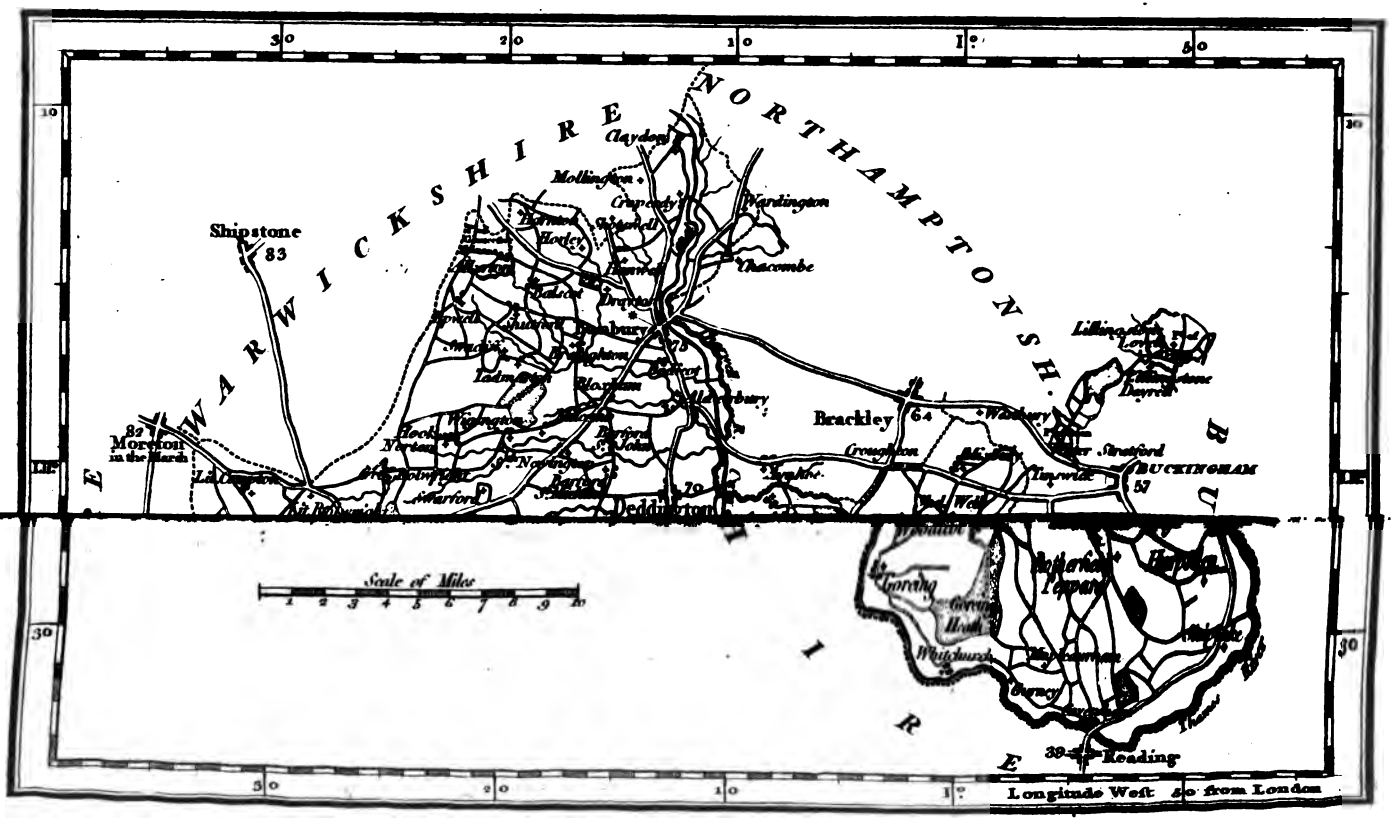
the fact is certain) all hermit beavers have a black mark on the inſide of the ſkin upon their backs, called a ſaddle, which diſtinguiſhes them. I rather think the cauſe of hermit beavers to be fidelity; as they are very faithful creatures to their mate; and by ſome accident or other, loſing that mate, they either will not pair again, or remain ſingle until they can find another hermit of the contrary ſex; and that the ſaddle proceeds from the want of a partner to keep their back warm. I am ſure that ſuppoſition is more natural, than, that it ſhould be turned out becauſe it is lazy; for many of thoſe hermit beavers do ſo much work, that good furriers have ſometimes been deceived, and imagined they had found a ſmall crew. Whether they do, or do not make uſe of their tails as trowels to plaſter their houſes with, I cannot ſay, though I am inclined to believe they do not; becauſe their tail is ſo heavy, and the tendons of it ſo weak, though numerous, that I do not think they can uſe it to that effect; and that therefore they daub the earth on with their hands, for I muſt call them ſo. When they dive, they give a ſmack on the water with their tails as they go down; but that appears to me to proceed from the tail falling over with its own weight. They move very ſlowly on land, and being alſo a very cowardly creature, are eaſily killed there by any man or beaſt that chances to meet with them: yet, being defended by long fur, and a thick ſkin, and armed with long, ſtrong teeth, firmly ſet in very ſtrong jaws, they are capable of making a ſtout reſiſtance. I have heard of an old one, which cut the leg of a dog nearly off at one ſtroke, and I make not the leaſt doubt of the truth of the information. Still I have been informed, that otters will enter their houſes and kill them; but I believe it muſt only be the young ones, when the old ones are from home; for I hardly think, that an old beaver would ſuffer itſelf to be killed by an otter. When met on ſhore by a man, they have been known to ſit upon their breech and fall a crying like a young child; an inſtance of which I muſt relate.

A man newly arrived in Newfoundland, was walking through a wood, and near a pond; where he chanced to meet a beaver with a billet of wood on his ſhoulder, going down to the water. As ſoon as the creature ſaw him, he laid down his load, ſat upon his breech, and cried exactly like an infant. The man having more tenderneſs in his diſpoſition than ſuch men uſually have, not knowing what it was, and, perhaps, taking it for a creature ſuperior to the brute creation, ſtopped and addreſſed it thus, 'Thou need'ſt not cry, poor thing, for I would not hurt thee for the world; ſo thou mayeſt take up thy turn of firewood and go home about thy buſineſs.' The above ſtory I do not give as a poſitive fact; relating it only as I have often heard it. It is an actual truth, however, that a late ſervant of mine, Charles Atkinſon, could never be prevailed upon to taſte the fleſh of beavers, becauſe he was ſure, he ſaid, 'They were enchanted Chriſtians.' When beavers meet with a ſufficiency of aſpen, birch, or ſuch ſhrubs as they are fond of, and which are not bigger than a ſtout pole, they will ſeldom cut thoſe of a larger ſize; but, when neceſſity obliges them, they will cut down the largeſt tree that ever grew. How long they are in performing the work, I have had no opportunity to aſcertain, but I believe it is done in no great time: for I once found at the foot of a black ſpruce, that they had cut down, a chip of four inches in length and two in breadth, which ſeemed to have been taken off at one ſtroke. And I have ſeen ſo many ſtout trees, which have been felled by them in the courſe of one ſeaſon, that I am convinced they muſt work both quick and diligently. Small trees they cut on one ſide only, but large ones they go round and always fell them toward the water, to

ſave

ſave themſelves carriage. A ſtick, the thickneſs of a ſtout walking cane, they will cut off at one ſtroke, and as clean as if done by a gardener's pruning knife. It is the bark only of trees which they eat, and ſeem to like that of the branches beſt, though they will eat the rind of the trunks alſo. Having felled a large tree, they lop off all the branches, and thoſe, as well as the bodies of ſmall trees, they cut up into lengths according to their weight and thickneſs; the larger ones they carry on their ſhoulders to the water ſide, throw them in, and tow them to the place where they are wanted; the long branches they drag along in their mouths. They always cut on the windward ſide of a pond, becauſe, by ſwimming along the ſhore before they land, they can wind any enemy who may perchance be there; the wind alſo aſſiſting them both to fall the tree toward the water, and to tow the wood home. Theſe creatures begin to grow fat after the middle of July, are in tolerable caſe by the end of Auguſt, and by the end of September, are at their beſt, provided they have good living and are not diſturbed. Thoſe which feed upon brouze, particularly on birch, are the moſt delicious eating of any animal in the known world; but the fleſh of thoſe which feed upon the root of the water-lilly, although it makes them much fatter than any other food, has a ſtrong taſte, and is very unpleaſant. After Chriſtmas they begin to decline, and by May are commonly poor; in theſe particulars they reſemble the porcupine, as they do in many other reſpects. If their houſe is diſturbed much before the pond is frozen, they commonly quit it, and go into the next, either above or below; or they will go into an old houſe in the ſame pond, or a ſmall one of their own there, which they generally have beſide the one they live in, and it is termed the hovel. If they have been teaſed much in former years, they will often fly for a ſlight diſturbance; but ſhould the furrier chance to catch the two old ones at firſt, the reſt of the family will ſcarce ever quit the pond. So long as the pond is free from ice, they keep adding to their magazine of proviſions; but when it is frozen firm, they begin to live upon it. As the ſticks which compoſe their magazine are entangled one into another, ſo as to make it difficult to extract a whole, they cut a piece off, bring it into their houſe, and there eat off the bark: after which they carry it out again and caſt it looſe into the water. In bringing their food into their houſe, they often ſtrike one end of the ſtick on the bridge of a trap, which the furrier has placed for him in the angle. From this circumſtance, many of the ignorant people have poſitively aſſerted, that the ſagacity of the beaver induced him ſo to do, to prevent being caught himſelf; but if beavers had ſo much knowledge, very few of them, I am perſuaded, would be taken. Whereas, the beaver's ſafety depends chiefly on the furrier's ignorance, for he who underſtands the buſineſs well, will certainly catch the whole family, or all the families which are in the ſame pond (if it be not too large) in a very few nights, be they ever ſo numerous. If they are caught young, they are ſoon made tame, and then are very fond of boiled peaſe. Buffon and others ſay, that they make uſe of their tails as ſleds to draw ſtones and earth upon: I cannot contradict their aſſertions, as I have never ſeen theſe animals work; but I do not believe it, becauſe their tails being thickeſt at the root and down the centre part, it would be almoſt impoſſible for them to keep a ſtone on it, unleſs held there by another. Nor have I ever obſerved, that they had taken any ſtones off the ground; but they bring them from the ſides and bottoms of the water, and muſt make uſe of their hands for thoſe purpoſes; as they could eaſier ſhove and roll them along, than draw them on their tails: beſides, the ſkin of the under part of the tail would be rubbed off by the friction on the ground;





WARWICKSHIRE
NORTHAMPTONSH.
BUCKINGHAM
Shipstone
83
Moreton in the Marsh
82
Claydon
Mollington
Wardington
Chacombe
Brackley
64
Deddington
70
Goring
Whitchurch
Reading
39
Scale of Miles
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Longitude West 50 from London

ground; which never yet has been obſerved to be the caſe with them, and is a ſtronger proof, that they never do make uſe of them for that purpoſe. Thoſe who compare this account with the writings of Buffon and others, will find a great difference, but it muſt be remembered, that they wrote entirely from hearſay, and I, from experience chiefly. As ſo many noblemen and gentlemen in England have expended large ſums in curioſities and pleaſure, I greatly wonder, that not one, out of ſo many who have parks well walled round (for no other fence will do) with convenient ponds in them, have been curious enough to eſtabliſh a colony of beavers; which might eaſily be done, by planting plenty of birch, aſpen, aſh, willow, ſallow, oſier, alder, and other ſuch like trees round the ponds, according to the nature of the ſoil, and procuring a few pairs of beavers to turn in. But care ſhould be taken to have pairs of the ſame families, leſt they ſhould all turn hermits.

An Account of OXFORDSHIRE: *With a neat and accurate* MAP *of that County.*

OXFORDSHIRE is bounded on the eaſt by Buckinghamſhire; on the weſt by Glouceſterſhire; on the ſouth by Berkſhire; and on the north by Warwickſhire and Northamptonſhire. Its extreme length is forty-eight miles; its greateſt breadth twenty-ſix. It contains fourteen hundreds, one city, twelve market-towns, and 280 pariſhes, and ſends nine members to parliament; the air is ſweet, mild, pleaſant, and healthy. The ſoil, though various, is fertile in corn and graſs. The ſouthern part of the county, eſpecially on the borders of Buckinghamſhire, is a hilly and woody country, having a continuation of the Chiltern Hills ruuning through it. The north-weſtern part is alſo elevated and ſtony. The middle is, in general, a rich country, watered by numerous ſtreams, running from north to ſouth, and terminating in the Thames. Of theſe, the moſt conſiderable are the Windruſh, Evenlode, Cherwell, and Tame. The latter, although an inconſiderable rivulet, has obtained ſome importance from having been ſuppoſed to give name to the Thames, into which it flows above Wallingford. The products of Oxfordſhire are chiefly thoſe common to the midland farming counties. Its hills yield ochre, pipe-clay, and other earths, uſeful for various purpoſes. Corn and malt are tranſmitted from it, by means of the Thames, to the metropolis. Good cheeſe is made in the grazing parts. The greateſt want in this county is that of fuel; for the woods, with which it once abounded, being greatly diminiſhed, it is neceſſary to ſupply the deficiency of fire-wood with ſea-coal, brought by a long and troubleſome navigation from London. The junction of the Thames with the Trent and Merſey, by the canal from Braunſton to Hampton Gay, and by another canal (for which an act of parliament was obtained in 1793) from Braunſton to Brentford, will greatly remedy this inconvenience. The moſt conſiderable foreſt now remaining in Oxfordſhire is that of Witchwood, between Burford and Charlbury. With reſpect to manufactures, the town of Witney, in this county, is famous for blankets; but the other towns are not particularly diſtinguiſhed by manufactures to any degree of extent or conſequence. Oxford, the capital, is the glory, not only of this county, but of the whole iſland, for its celebrated univerſity, the nobleſt ſeat of learning in the world.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, November 1793.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	8	29,63	38,5	50	50	3	WNW 1	foggy
	2	29,71	44	52	47,5	2	NW 1	hazy
2	1	29,95	33,5	44	50,5	1	WNW 1	hazy
	2	29,90	44,5	50	48	4	S 1	. more cloudy : rain. fine
3	8	29,66	46,5	51	54	2	SW 1	hazy
N	2	29,67	50	53,5	47	2	W 1	
4	8	29,64	41	51,5	55	f	SW 1	. much rain
	2	29,46	45	52,5	52,5	h	E 1	. rain
5	8	29,67	37,5	47,5	52	f	W 1	. fine
	2	29,66	47	52	48	2	WNW 1	. foggy eve
6	8	29,87	40,5	49,5	52,5	2	NNW 1	foggy
	2	29,90	47	51,5	49	2	N 1	
7	8	29,99	40	49,5	51	2	NNW 1	foggy : more cloudy
	2	29,97	46	51	48	4	NNW 2	. little rain. clear night
8	8	29,92	37	47	55	f	N'b	. wind E : little rain
	2	29,76	45,5	50	52,5	h	SE 1	. chiefly gentle rain
9	8	29,54	40,5	47,5	52,5	2	W 1	foggy
	2	29,52	48,5	52,5	51,5	3	S 2	. cloudy night : much rain
10	8	29,11	49	52,5	55	5	WSW 1	little rain. fine
	2	29,21	49	54	50	2	SW 1	. rain at night
11	8	29,22	46	55	50,5	3	NW 1	foggy. wind W
	2	29,41	49,5	54,5	48,5	3	W 1	
12	8	29,71	38	47	56	f	N 1	. little wet
	2	29,58	47	52	57,5	f	E 1	. rain. windy night and chiefly fine
13	8	29,30	51	54	55	3	SSW 2	: cloudy
	2	29,32	53	55	50,5	5	SW 2	. clear night
14	8	29,47	42,5	48	52,5	f	SW 1	. few clouds but hazy
	2	29,51	49,5	55	49	3	SW 1	hazy. foggy eve. fine
15	8	29,54	43,5	50	60	3	SE 1	f ggy. cloudy
	2	29,50	50	55	52.5	5	SE 2	: little rain
16	8	29,47	47,5	52	60	5	E 2	foggy
	2	29,49	50	56,5	54	5	E 1	foggy
17	8	29,61	49	55	64	f	E 1	. rain at times
F	2	29,66	51	56,5	57	5	ENE 1	gentle rain. lefs cloudy eve and chiefly fair
18	8	29,6	52	56	56	4	SE 1	hazy
	2	29,68	55	57	56	5	SE 1	. fine night but hazy
19	8	29,58	49	55	56	f	ENE 1	
	2	29,60	54	57	52,5	3	S 1	hazy
20	8	29,84	46	55	55	f	SE 1	continual fog
	2	29,87	52	57	52,5	f	E 1	continual fog
21	8	30,01	49	54,5	57	f	E 1	. lefs foggy
	2	30,02	51	56	53,5	5	E 1	. fine night
22	8	30,01	44	54	58	f	E 1	. fine
	2	29,97	51	55	59	1	E 1	hazy. foggy eve. fine
23	8	29,97	46,5	54	70,5	f	E 1	. fine
	2	29,93	51,5	56,5	59	1	E 2	hazy
24	8	30,09	45,5	51,5	61	5	E 2	
	2	30,12	47,5	54,5	58	5	E 2	
25	8	30,32	45,5	53,5	53	5	NE 1	
	2	30,34	44,5	49,5	52	5	NE 1	
26	8	30,34	45,5	52,5	55	h	NE 1	
	2	30,33	43,5	53	52,5	h	NE 1	. little wet at night : fine
27	8	30,25	44	50,5	56	1	NNE 1	. cloudy
	2	30,25	49	53,5	56	5	N 1	
28	8	30,33	45,5	50,5	62	h	N 1	
	2	30,33	46,5	53	53,5	h	E 1	
29	8	30,37	46	52,5	55	f	NE 1	
	2	30,36	47,5	53,5	52	5	NNE 2	: little rain
30	8	30,37	42,5	50	54	5	NNE 1	
	2	30,37	45,5	53	53,5	4	N 1	hazy. fine eve. cloudy : little rain

OBSER-

OBSERVATIONS *on the* DISEASES *in* November 1793.

THE ſmallpox, which uſually declined at this ſeaſon of the year, was on the contrary more frequent; it ſtill continued to be confluent, was frequently accompanied with *petechiæ*, and the mortality very conſiderable; when it proved fatal, it was commonly about the fourteenth day, but many inſtances occurred of its becoming ſo on the fourth or fifth; the mouth and fauces were in general much covered with the eruption, and the breathing from the firſt attack of the diſeaſe was difficult; keeping the patients in the open air during the eruption was very beneficial, as the number of puſtules was conſiderably leſſened and the danger thereby diminiſhed; bark and mineral acids were the beſt remedies for the putrid ſymptoms, and opiates occaſionally adminiſtered proved abundantly uſeful in abating irritability, and thereby leſſening fever. Scarlet fever again prevailed in the neighbourhood, and proved rather fatal, but was ſtill a rare diſeaſe in town. The meaſles were likewiſe very frequent, but mild. Catarrhs were pretty univerſal, but children were more particularly affected by them.

Account of an Intereſting Occurrence in the RHÆTIAN ALPS; *with the general Character of the* TYROLESE.

[From Travels through the Rhætian Alps, in the Year 1786, from Italy to Germany, through Tyrol, by Albanis Beaumont.]

I PROPOSE relating an occurrence which happened to me during the preſent excurſion. It will, I hope, not be deemed an improper digreſſion, as it will ſhew the natural ſimplicity and character of the inhabitants.

I have already acquainted my readers, that at my firſt ſetting out in the morning, the appearance of the atmoſphere gave me reaſon to apprehend that there would be a ſtorm in the courſe of the day: my fears were realiſed, and indeed earlier than I expected.

By nine o'clock, I had walked upward of twelve miles; and, not perceiving the carriage, I gave myſelf up entirely to the pleaſure of admiring the innumerable beauties which ſurrounded me, both in reſpect to botany and lithology. At every ſtep I took, ſome curious plant or other attracted my notice; among which were diſcernable the elegant gentiana purpurea, the gentiana punctata, the epilobium alpinum, and the campanula carpatica of Linnæus; as alſo the humble tuſſilago alpina flore-evanido of Chuſio, &c. The rocks were tremendous, ſhelving over on all ſides.

The different ſpecies of ſtrata of which theſe rocks were compoſed, their extraordinary appearance, took up all my attention: ſome of them were a mixture of quartz and mica, of the 164th ſpecies of Wallerius, which he terms *ſaxum mixtum anaticum*; and here and there I found their ſtrata, or beds, nearly perpendicular; others were compoſed of heaps or pieces of granite, piled upon one another, intermixed with marbles of various colours, and banks of hornſtone, of the 143d ſpecies of Wallerius, named *corneus fiſſilis*: it is, therefore, not to be wondered at, if I was inſenſible of the danger that threatened me, ſurrounded as I was by ſuch a variety of natural curioſities, and in a valley, which, all the way from the ſmall village of Antlas, was ſo remarkably contracted by the ſhelving rocks on each ſide, that I could only ſee a ſmall portion of the ſky. I was, however, ſuddenly rouſed from my contemplations, by a whirlwind which carried clouds of duſt along the valley, and covered me in an inſtant; the ſky darkened, and large drops of rain fell with ſuch impetuoſity,

petuoſity, that I took it for hail; while the thunder, rumbling at a diſtance, and re-echoed by the ſurrounding rocks, appeared to threaten immediate deſtruction. That moment was certainly the moſt awful I ever experienced: finding myſelf alone, and a perfect ſtranger in a country, where I could but indifferently ſpeak or underſtand their language, which is in general German, yet I ſtill ſucceeded with haſty ſteps, not knowing whither I was going, or where to find an aſylum. The tempeſt increaſing, and the horrors accumulating, I gave myſelf up for loſt; when, fortunately, I perceived one of the hermitages I have already deſcribed, which was neatly cut in the rock, reſembling a cave, ſufficiently large to afford protection to the affrighted traveller. Thoſe who have croſſed the Alps will eaſily conceive that my fears were not imaginary, as they muſt have encountered ſimilar danger, and know the fatal conſequence.

Having precipitately entered the hermitage or cave, ſuppoſing myſelf quite alone, I was ſtartled at hearing a ſigh, which ſeemed to iſſue from the extremity of it; and, turning haſtily, I ſaw a young woman at her devotions, ſeemingly ſupplicating an image which repreſented the Virgin Mary, and in the act of crowning it with a wreath of flowers, while a taper burned on each ſide of it. Whether owing to the unexpected ſurpriſe of ſeeing me, or becauſe the image was beyond her reach, I could not determine; but ſhe was obliged to give up the attempt. I ventured to approach and offer her my aſſiſtance, at the ſame time, fearing that I might alarm her, I explained, in the beſt manner I could, the cauſe of my taking refuge in a place which appeared to be allotted entirely to acts of devotion. As ſoon as ſhe had ſufficiently got the better of her aſtoniſhment, ſhe related an affecting tale in terms full of candour and ſimplicity. She told me, that her name was Anna; that ſhe lived in the village of Sander, near the valley of Zargin; that ſhe came every year to accompliſh a vow ſhe had made for her father's recovery, who was a miner, and had been taken from under one of the galleries, where he was at work, apparently dead. She added, that ſhe was fifteen when the accident happened, which was three years ſince, and that ſhe had never miſſed coming at the ſtated period. I was ſo inchanted with this good girl's ſimple narrative, that I again entreated her to let me place the wreath of flowers on the Virgin's head; but ſhe modeſtly declined, ſaying, that ſhe expected her brother, who was gone to Zimerlehen, a village not far diſtant; that he had promiſed her faithfully to return before the tapers were expired; then, caſting a wiſhful look at them, and heaving a ſigh, ſhe ſaid, that ſhe feared the ſtorm had detained him, but that ſhe hoped no harm would happen to him.

The thunder ſtill continued rumbling over our heads in a moſt terrific manner: the flaſhes of lightning were more frequent, appearing inceſſantly as if croſſing the defile, and nearly entering our place of refuge; while the rain falling in torrents from the rocks, carried with it immenſe pieces of ſtone, which, from the velocity with which they fell, ſhivered into a thouſand pieces, and added greatly to the horror of the ſcene. Anna, perceiving that the lights were nearly out, and that ſhe ſhould be prevented from accompliſhing her vow, requeſted me, at laſt, to aſſiſt her in placing the flowers, which I had juſt accompliſhed, when we heard the approach of a carriage, which proved to be the one I expected. I had, however, the ſatisfaction of gaining ſome intelligence, from the poſt-boy, of her brother, who had paſſed him on the road: I was, therefore, releaſed from the painful neceſſity of leaving that poor and amiable girl by herſelf in ſo ſolitary a ſituation, which the ſtorm rendered ſtill more diſtreſſing.

Happy people! whoſe morals are

as

as pure as their ideas are innocent. Their hands will never be ſullied with the blood of their fellow-creatures; for their offſprings to the divinity are of the pureſt kind, conceiving that religion was meant to diffuſe happineſs and comfort among mankind, ignorant of the abuſes which cruel policy has introduced!

The Tyroleſe in general, as well as moſt of the inhabitants of the Alps, are not opulent, yet there are ſcarcely any poor among them. I have travelled through ſeveral of their vallies, which extend upward of ten miles, and have not met with the leaſt appearance of wretchedneſs.

Each individual cultivates his own land; and when that is not ſufficient for the maintenance of his family, he has recourſe to that induſtry and activity which is natural to them all; and endeavours to procure work in the mines, or different manufactories: if not ſucceſsful, they quit Tyrol in the quality of hawkers, and convey into other countries the produce of their own.

Such are the little pleaſurable barters of life, when life is governed by ſimplicity alone, and the eſtimation in which objects are held is only proportioned to their real utility.

They are tall, ſtrong, and robuſt, as mountaineers are in general; remarkably cheerful, with great mildneſs and honeſty of character; but keen, with an uncommon ſhare of natural underſtanding. They are Roman catholics, and exceſſively devout, placing not only in the roads, but on their habitations, a number of images, according to the forms of their religion; yet the generality of them are not bigots, for they appear to eſteem, indiſcriminately, all ſtrangers who viſit them, without attending to their different opinions on religion: like moſt mountaineers, they are particularly attached to their prince and to their country.

In ſhort, whether we conſider the inhabitants of this part of the world, or the country itſelf, a traveller will not find it eaſy perhaps to viſit any ſpot where more circumſtances concur to gratify a love of natural hiſtory, to enlarge the mind, or to intereſt the feelings.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* ANATOMICAL KNOWLEDGE *of* HOMER *and* VIRGIL.

[From Letters on that Subject, by the Rev. Mr. Taſker.]

SIR,

RESPECTING the ſubject of our laſt converſation:—it has been often aſſerted, that Homer underſtood anatomy.—Having lately attended anatomical lectures, as delivered by the cleareſt demonſtrator in the known world, I am now reading the Iliad with this particular view.

You may perhaps be a little ſurpriſed at firſt, to find the words uſed by Homer, expreſſive of the different parts of the human body, to be nearly the ſame as Dr. W. Hunter uſes in his anatomical demonſtrations; but this phænomenon is eaſily reſolved, when we conſider, that the common language of ancient Greece is now adopted as the ſcientific in our medical ſchools. Homer, however, could not have preciſely the ſame learned ideas annexed to the ſame words; ſince he could not poſſibly underſtand the minutiæ of anatomy; the ſcience itſelf not then exiſting. And indeed, Hippocrates, at a much later period, had little knowledge of the component parts of the human body under diſſection, further than the bare ſkeleton; but the divine poet, in this matter, as in every thing elſe, copied from nature; and has in a wonderful manner diverſified the wounds and deaths of his heroes; deſcribing them in ſuch a manner, that he renders his readers

readers almoſt ſpectators. And every wound, that in its own nature is mortal, is generally deſcribed as ſuch; and no chief ever makes a ſpeech, when expiring, unleſs his wounds admit of that privilege: there is ſcarcely a ſingle inſtance to the contrary in the whole Iliad; as you will find, if you read the original Greek; though I am ſorry to obſerve, that there are many very glaring ones in Pope's (otherwiſe moſt beautiful) tranſlation; or as it may with more propriety be termed 'modernization' of one of the moſt ancient poems now in being. Pope ſomewhere obſerves, that Homer is rather too critically nice in theſe reſpects: as his tranſlator, however, he has ſufficiently obviated this objection by his own practice; though, in his Eſſay on Homer's Battles, he very ingeniouſly remarks, 'that Homer has varied theſe deaths by the ſeveral poſtures in which his heroes are repreſented, either fighting or falling; ſome of which he ſays (as every other perſon muſt ſay) are ſo exceedingly exact, that one may gueſs, from the very poſition of the combatants, whereabout the wound will light; others, he ſays, are ſo peculiar and uncommon, 'that they could only be the effect of an imagination, which has ſearched through all the ideas of nature; and ſuch is the poſture of Medon, in the fifth book, whoſe arm being numbed by a blow on the elbow, drops the reins that trail on the ground; and then being ſuddenly ſtruck on the temples, falls headlong from the chariot, in a ſoft and deep place, where he ſinks up to the ſhoulders in the ſands, and is a while fixed by the weight of his armour, with his legs quivering in the air, till he is trampled down by his horſes.'

So much for ſenſible, elegant and judicious Pope! but reſpecting my humble ſelf, the blaze of poetry, that every where ſhines and burns throughout the poem in any language, like the ακαμαλον πυρ, or the unwearied fire on the helmet of Diomed, as deſcribed in the beginning of the fifth book, dazzles my eyes in the proſaic reſearch that I am now making: however, I can clearly ſee the beautiful propriety of circumſtances and conſequences attending every wounded ſoldier. It may not likewiſe be improper to conſider a little the very imperfect ſtate of medicine at the time of the Trojan war; no medical diſtinctions were then eſtabliſhed; the ſame men were both ſurgeons and phyſicians; as we find exemplified in Podalirius and Machaon, (the two ſons of Æſculapius) who acted as ſurgeons general to the Grecian army. Their ſimple practice conſiſted chiefly in extracting darts or arrows, in ſtaunching the blood, by ſome infuſion of bitter herbs, and ſometimes they added charms, or incantations; which ſeemed to be a poetical way of hinting, that frequently wounds or diſeaſes were cured in a manner unaccountable, by any known properties they could diſcover either in the effects of their rude remedies, or in the then known powers of the human body to relieve itſelf. On peruſing the Odyſſey (which, though it does not contain the terrible graces, ſublime images, and animation of the Iliad, is perhaps equally or more entertaining by the calmer, but not leſs beautiful, pictures of the ſimplicity of the heroic age, and the pleaſant ſcenes of rural and domeſtic life, which it copiouſly exhibits) I perceive in Homer's deſcription of the wound which Ulyſſes, when young, received in his thigh from the tuſk of an enraged wild boar, that the effuſion of blood was ſtopped by incantations or divine ſongs, and ſome ſort of bandage which muſt have acted by preſſure. If any verſe could have acted as a charm, the very verſe that deſcribes the wound, might have as good a right to ſuch a claim as any other; but, in what manner the ſurgeons of antient Greece, before the diſcovery of the circulation of the blood, might apply bandages for the purpoſe here mentioned, is not eaſily to be explained; though

though doubtleſs theſe bandages muſt have acted like a tornequet, which is now the moſt effectual remedy for compreſſing a wounded artery, and thereby ſtopping an hemorrhage.

I cannot conclude this letter without obſerving, that the phraſe of 'biting the duſt,' ſo often applied to the dying warriors; and what Shakſpeare's Falſtaff humorouſly calls 'grinning honour,' is a juſt, but horrible, picture of nature in her laſt agonies. Virgil has diverſified this phraſe in a variety of expreſſions; but by the addition of '*moriénſq; ſuo ſe in vulnere verſat*,' which is ſo happily expreſſive of the contortions and writhings of the body from the extreme anguiſh of a painful wound; he has in this, as in ſome other few inſtances, evidently improved on his great maſter. Yours, &c. &c.

OBSERVATIONS ON TONTINES.

[From Mr. Morgan's Introduction to a new Edition of Dr. Price's Obſervations on Reverſionary Payments.]

OF all the phantoms which are held up to entice and to deceive the multitude, none are more miſchievous, or deſerve more ſevere reprehenſion, than the tontines which have lately become ſo prevalent in every part of this country. By theſe, while the adventurer is lured with the extravagant hope of making his fortune in a ſhort period, and at a ſmall expence, the worſt ſpirit of gambling and idle ſpeculation is called forth, and thoſe baneful effects which are produced by a ſtate lottery in London are extended to the remoteſt corners of the kingdom. It is not only the perſon who can afford to ſubſcribe ſixpence or a ſhilling a week from his income that becomes the dupe of thoſe bubbles; they are crowded in the poorer parts of the country with domeſtic ſervants whoſe wages do not exceed 3l. or 4l. a ſum, which even properly applied, is hardly ſufficient for their maintenance. This claſs of ſubſcribers muſt neceſſarily either involve themſelves in poverty and diſtreſs to complete their payments, or, which is more probable, they muſt find themſelves unable to go on with them, and by this means loſe all the money they have already advanced. It is indeed no wonder, conſidering the ignorance which prevails on the ſubject, that ſo many ſhould be captivated with the advantages which are promiſed them in theſe tontines; and it may not perhaps be improper to ſtate a few facts which, if they produce no other effect, will however tend to moderate the expectations, and conſequently to leſſen the diſappointment of the ſubſcribers at the final diviſion of their ſtock. The well known increaſe of money when improved at compound intereſt, and the continual mortality of the human race (which is proved by the melancholy experience of every day) are the two principles upon which all tontines are founded, and from which they derive all their encouragement. But it is impoſſible to apply thoſe principles more improperly than to the preſent purpoſe. In the ſhort term of ſeven years the accumulation of money at ſimple and compound intereſt is much the ſame, and the decrements of life are ſo inconſiderable as to produce little or no effect in increaſing this accumulation. A weekly payment of ſixpence, improved at 4 per cent. compound intereſt for ſeven years, will amount to 10l. 5s. 3d. but at ſimple intereſt it will amount to 10l. 3s. 10d. and at no intereſt at all to 9l. 2s.

From a calculation on the probable number of deaths in a given number of perſons in the courſe of ſeven years, I conclude that the ſhare of each ſurvivor will not exceed eleven guineas; and when the expences of management and probable loſſes are deducted, the ſurviving members will have the

ſatiſ-

ſatisfaction to find at the end of ſeven years, that they have barely received their principal, after having endangered the loſs of the greateſt part of it, by the riſk of dying in the mean time. In ſhort, the only ſource from which thoſe tontines can derive any additional increaſe muſt be from the inability of ſome of the members to go on with their ſubſcriptions. But this is an evil of the worſt kind, and defeats the very end for which thoſe plans are ſaid to be principally intended.

Inſtead therefore of relieving, they will add to the miſeries of the poor, and the only perſons that will be benefited by them (excepting indeed the treaſurers and ſecretaries) will be the more wealthy ſubſcribers, whoſe ſhares will have acquired their chief increaſe from the ſpoils of the diſtreſſed. I am ſorry to ſee thoſe ſchemes adopted and encouraged by ſo many reſpectable perſons, who have contributed very much, by their character and ſituation in life, to ſpread the contagion; and by ſubmitting to become truſtees of the different ſocieties, they have unfortunately given them a weight and credit which they would not otherwiſe have enjoyed. In one of the moſt numerous of thoſe tontines, which conſiſts of 43,000 members, it has been urged in its defence that it would have a tendency *to improve the morals of the people* by leading them to habits of ſaving. Although no doubt can be entertained of the good intentions of thoſe who patronize this ſcheme, it muſt, I think, be acknowledged that the method they have choſen of reforming the poor is rather equivocal. It is not likely that an indigent man, when allured to ſave by the ſame motives which ſtimulate a gambler to his ruin, ſhould be *improved in his morals* by this means, or that he ſhould be much prejudiced in favour of this diſpoſition when his hopes and expectations are kept alive by a deluſion. After looking forward during the term of ſeven years to the accumulation of an immenſe fortune, and finding himſelf at laſt barely in poſſeſſion of the miſerable pittance he has paid, it will be no wonder if the mortifying diſappointment he feels ſhould lead him to ſquander away a ſum, too ſcanty for eſtabliſhing him in trade or for any other valuable purpoſe, and that, inſtead of convincing him of the good effects of ſaving, it ſhould confirm him in the habits of diſſipation.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

TO THE LILY.

[From the Romance of the Foreſt.]

SOFT ſilken flow'r, that in the dewy vale,
Unfold'ſt thy modeſt beauties to the morn,
And breath'ſt thy fragrance on the wand'ring gale,
O'er earth's green hills and ſhadowy vallies borne.

When Day has clos'd his dazzling eye,
And dying gales ſink ſoft away;
When Eve ſteals down the weſtern ſky,
And mountains, woods, and vales decay;

Thy tender cups, that graceful ſwell,
Droop ſad beneath her chilly dews;
Thy odours ſeek their ſilken cell,
And Twilight veils thy languid hues.

But ſoon, fair flower, the morn ſhall riſe,
And rear again thy penſive head,
Again unveil thy ſnowy dyes,
Again thy velvet foliage ſpread.

Sweet child of Spring, like thee in Sorrow's ſhade,
Full oft I mourn, and droop forlorn;
And O! like thee, may light my glooms pervade,
And Sorrow fly before Joy's living morn.

NIGHT.

[From the Same.]

NOW Ev'ning fades! her penſive ſtep retires,
And Night leads on the dews of ſhadowy hours;
Her awful pomp of planetary fires,
And all her train of viſionary bow'rs.

Theſe

These paint with fleeting shapes the dream of sleep;
These swell the waking soul with pleasing dread;
These through the glooms in form terrific sweep,
And rouse the thrilling horrors of the dead.

Queen of the solemn thought, mysterious Night!
Whose step is darkness, and whose voice is fear!
Thy shades I welcome with severe delight,
And hail thy hollow gales that sigh so drear!

When wrapt in clouds and riding in the blast,
Thou roll'st the storm along the sounding shore,
I love to watch the whelming billows cast
On rocks below, and listen to the roar.

Thy milder terrors, Night, I frequent woo,
Thy silent lightning, and thy meteors glare,
Thy northern fires bright with ensanguin'd hue,
That light in heav'ns high vault the fervid air.

But chief I love thee, when thy lucid car,
Sheds through the fleecy clouds a trembling gleam;
And shews the misty mountain from afar,
The neater forest, and the winding stream;

And nameless objects in the vale below,
That floating dimly to the musing eye;
Assume at Fancy's touch fantastic show,
And raise her sweet romantic visions high.

Then let me stand, amid thy glooms profound,
On some wild woody steep, and hear the breeze,
That swells in mournful melody around,
And faintly dies upon the distant trees.

What melancholy charm steals o'er the mind!
What hallow'd fears the rising rapture greet!
While many a viewless spirit in the wind,
Sighs to the lonely hour in accents sweet!

Ah! who the dear illusion pleas'd would yield,
Which fancy wakes from silence and from shades,
For all the sober forms of truth reveal'd,
For all the scenes that day's bright eye pervades.

SONG.

Tune—*In infancy our hopes and fears.*

THE Queen of Hearts, she made some tarts,
All on a summer's day;
The Knave of Hearts, he stole those tarts,
And took them all away:
The King of Hearts heard of the tarts,
And to the Knave did say,
Restore those tarts, you Knave of Hearts,
Or else for them you pay.

The King of Spades, he kiss'd his maids,
Which vex'd the Queen full sore;
The Queen of Spades, she beat those jades,
And turn'd them out of door:
The Knave of Spades griev'd for those jades,
And did for them implore;
The Queen so gent, she did relent,
And vow'd she'd ne'er strike more.

The King of Clubs, he often drubs
His Queen and loving wife;
The Queen of Clubs, she bears those snubs,
And all his noise and strife;
The Knave of Clubs gives winks and rubs,
And swears he'll take her part:
For sure when Kings will do such things,
They shou'd be made to smart.

The Diamond King I fain wou'd sing,
And likewise his fair Queen,
But that the Knave, a haughty slave,
Must needs step in between:
Good Diamond King, with hempen string
This haughty Knave destroy;
Then may your Queen, with mind serene,
Your royal bed enjoy.

To MIRA.

MY lovely Mira, soft and fair
As April's new-born rose,
Beneath a mother's guardian care
A bud of beauty blows.

While warmer tints her cheeks adorn,
Her eyes new lustre caught,
As each improving rising morn
Expands the glowing thought.

As still the virtues blest controul
With energy divine,
O'er beauty throw th' impassion'd soul,
Through which its graces shine!

And now—intelligence refin'd,
(Expression's magic charm,
Reflecting from her polish'd mind)
Irradiates her form!

Sure, Senſibility, her zone,
Has twin'd round Mira's breaſt;
Such ſweetneſs in each feature ſhown—
'Tis innocence expreſſed!

Harmonious graces as ſhe moves
Their elegance impart,
While Love his pow'r unconſcious proves
O'er each conſenting heart!

SONG.

THE morning aroſe, in her ſaffron robe dreſs'd,
Smil'd on me, and cheer'd my ſad heart;
In a tranſport of joy I then call'd myſelf bleſs'd:
Alas! it was only in part.

For ſoon recollection brought back with a ſigh,
The form of the youth I adore:
My moments glide happily on when he's nigh;
But now, I his abſence deplore.

Should I ſtray through the grove, or recline by yon rill
Whoſe murmurs ſo ſweetly complain,
His voice, in each echo I hear from the hill,
And look for my ſhepherd in vain.

Then quickly return to this boſom ſo true,
Its cares and its ſorrows will ceaſe;
We'll ſmile at the follies vain mortals purſue,
And hail the bleſt manſion of peace.

PROLOGUE to the SIEGE of BERWICK.

Written by the AUTHOR.

Spoken by Mr. HARLEY.

WHILE fears and hopes alternate thoughts ſuggeſt,
And now diſturb, now ſoothe the Author's breaſt;
While expectation breathes an awful pauſe
Ere yet the ready hand the curtain draws,
Ere yet the action glows—I come a ſpy
To caſt around a reconnoit'ring eye.
Yet then as I this fearful pit explore,
Where Authors ſometimes fall, to riſe no more;
Here, when the adventurer dares you to the field,
If his fond efforts ſome ſmall merit yield,
I've ſeen your gen'rous arm forbear the blow,
And raiſe to life and fame the grateful foe.
For you, the boiſt'rous inmates of the ſky,
Bold is the man who dares your pow'r defy;
With you confuſion her loud compact forms,
You ride the clouds, and are yourſelves the ſtorms.
Yet have I ſeen you mitigate your rage,
And ſpare th' adventurer ſtruggling on the ſtage;
If in ſome ſcenes (the reſt tho' feebly done)
Unerring nature own'd her genuine ſon,
Your glowing ſoul has graſp'd the Author's cauſe,
And hurl'd around the thunder of applauſe.

For you, ye glittering Amazonian train,
Whoſe arms are dreaded on the critic plain,
Tho' marſhal'd to the war by taſte ſevere,
Yet meek indulgence follows in the rear;
And oft on beauty's cheek I've loved to trace,
Soft-ſtealing down, the holy tear of grace.
Rais'd by the thoughts theſe ſoothing hopes create,
I'll bid the bard come forth to meet his fate;
The tyrant terror from his breaſt eraſe,
Ruſh on the ſcene, and combat for your praiſe.

PROLOGUE

To the WORLD in a VILLAGE.

Written by Mr. TAYLOR.

IN theſe dread times, when war's unfated rage
Crowds with diſaſters life's eventful ſtage;
When the fell trumpet, and embattled ire,
Drown the ſoft warblings of the ſlighted lyre;
The Muſe's lonely haunts no more diſplay,
Among their with'ring blooms, the Poet's bay:
The partial ſoil the laurel only fears,
For martial wreaths, that vegetate in tears.
At ſuch a time, ſuperflous ſeems the art,
To melt, with fabled woes, the ſadden'd heart;
The ſorrowing Muſes need themſelves relief,
And Fancy droops in ſympathetic grief.
The Tragic Maid, indeed, may ſoothe her care,
And future ſcenes from paſſing ills prepare;

But,

But, for the Laughing Nymph, alas! can ſhe
At eaſe preſume with her untimely glee?
Is there a place, amid a world's alarms,
In ſafety ſtill to heed her frolic charms?
Yes, in the ſhades of Britain's happy iſle,
Still may the Comic Muſe ſecurely ſmile;
Still, with her tuneful ſiſters, ſhelter here,
Nor ſavage Anarchy's vain menace fear:
Here no dire ruffians, dead to gen'rous joy,
All that endears or brightens life deſtroy;
Or drench'd in blood, with impious rage combine,
Trampling o'er thrones, to cruſh the hallow'd ſhrine.
Here, on a rock, ſecure amid the ſtorm,
Dwells Liberty, in fair monarchic form;
Around her fane, with venerable grace,
Three matchleſs columns fortify the place;
Enthron'd within, pre-eminently great,
Sits awful Juſtice, in majeſtic ſtate;
Of equal laws the animating ſoul,
And ſtationed higheſt, to ſurvey the whole;
Her ſword by Mercy check'd, as urg'd by might,
Her Crown the ſanction of a people's right.

LINES, ſuppoſed to have been written by the late unfortunate Queen of FRANCE, the Night before her ſuffering, ſet to Muſic by Mr. ATWOOD, and ſung by Mrs. CROUCH at Liverpool.

TO bid the world a long farewell,
To ſink in Death's uncertain ſleep,
Why does the heart with terror ſwell?
Why do theſe eyes for ſorrow weep?
In that ſame moment thouſands more
Their round of toil and grief ſhall cloſe;
That houſe of Joy ſhall peace reſtore,
There ſhall the weary find repoſe.

For me, Affliction's mournful child,
By many a furrow'd feature known,
Death beckons with an aſpect mild,
And points to a celeſtial Throne;
For there no more th' accuſing fiend
Shall hiſs its venom'd ſlander round,
But Seraphs from their glory bend,
To ſoothe with harps of ſilver ſound.

Then, unſubdu'd, my ſoul ſhall dare
What more of horrors yet remain;
For the laſt pangs my foes prepare,
Shall give my widow'd Lord again.
Not unſubdu'd—for, ah! to leave
My Orphans—victims of their rage!
My lateſt prayer, O Heaven receive,
O ſhield from wrong their helpleſs age!

VERSES addreſſed to Mr. THORNTON, Manager of the Theatre Royal at Windſor, by WILLIAM GREEN.

WHILE Candour reigns diffus'd through Britain's iſle,
Merit acknowledg'd, claims deſerv'd ſucceſs;
Where heav'n-born Genius treads its native ſoil,
Where ſoft Humanity delights to bleſs.

This fond idea, Thornton, wakes thy pow'rs,
With happy ſkill, a poliſh'd court to pleaſe;
With wit, with fancy, to beguile our hours,
When toil, ſubſiding, forms the wiſh for eaſe.

Succeſs be thine; for thine is Virtue's ſchool,
Where art exemplifies each paſſion's ſway;
Its magic ſcenes with awful impulſe rule,
Its winning accents ſacred truths convey.

Too weak the pow'r of precept o'er the mind,
To ſave incautious youth from pleaſure's ſnare;
But be that precept with example join'd,
They ſtrike the ſoul, and fix their influence there.

The drama to this nobleſt purpoſe tends;
Our moral pieces touch the feeling heart;
Amuſement with inſtruction ſweetly blends,
And Nature's ſemblance veils the form of Art.

Then be it yet a gen'rous nation's pride,
With taſte refin'd in this enlighten'd age,
To let no foreign ſounds that taſte deride;
Britons alone ſhould grace a Britiſh ſtage.

Newbury, Berks.
Dec. 10.

SONG, by Miſs LOCKE.

YE Fair, who now flutter in life's buſy throng,
Whoſe ſpring-tide of pleaſure flows gaily along,
Enjoy the glad ſeaſon, exult in your youth,
Yet attend to the counſels of Prudence and Truth.

Does liberal Nature beſtow her ſweet dye,
Give the treſſes to float, and to ſparkle the eye,
Bid the air of an Hebe the fair-one adorn,
With a ſmile like a cherub, a bluſh like the morn?

O, have you not mark'd the gay roſe in the bloom,
Unrivall'd in freſhneſs, in tints, and perfume?
It may flouriſh a day, and its triumphs are o'er,
For the next riſing ſun ſhall behold it no more.

So Beauty's ſweet flower will droop, wither, and fade,
If charms not more laſting adorn the fair maid.
Would you wiſh o'er the hearts of mankind to preſide,
Be Good-humour your gueſt, and Diſcretion your guide.

Thus affection, and prudence, judiciouſly blend,
And you'll find, in the huſband, the admirer and friend;
Theſe are charms that will pleaſe when youth's ſeaſon is flown,
And the lovers thus gain'd are for ever your own.

Shun the gaze of mankind, ſtill to modeſty true,
For tis your's to retreat, as 'tis theirs to purſue;
Tho' prudes may deſpiſe, yet the forward they ſhun,
For, the conqueſt is ſcorn'd that is eaſily won.

Bold beauty can ſeldom wake Love's purer fire,
Men give her faint praiſe, but at diſtance admire;
While the ſweet timid maiden, unpractis'd in art,
By retiring ſubdues, and poſſeſſes the heart.

SONNET, by the Same.

APENSIVE wanderer I delight to ſtray
What time pale Cynthia rules with ſoften'd pow'r,
Forget the buſy tumults of the day,
And give to Solitude the ſilent hour.

Then if the modeſt glow-worm meets my ſight,
She, who avoids the ſun's meridian blaze,
To veil her beauties in the ſhades of night,
While native brightneſs her retreat betrays;

I think on him, who in his ſecret cell
Shrinks from the eye, and ſhuns the voice of Fame;
While there, delighted, all the Virtues dwell,
And to the world his lone abode proclaim:

Surrounding nations his deſert approve,
And angels waft it to the realms above.

VERSES,

On the Death of the QUEEN of FRANCE.

By Mrs. MOODY.

LANDED on Death's pacific ſhore,
Ill-fated Queen, no tyrants more
Can violate thy peace;
Yet were thy ſoul to theſe conſign'd,
They would a purgatory find,
Whoſe pains ſhould never ceaſe.

But now vindictive rage is paſt,
Kind Death has mercy brought at laſt;
Mercy, to thee unknown;
Though moſt terrific was his hour;
He freed thee from barbarian power,
More cruel than his own.

POEM TO VIRTUE.

By Lady MANNERS.

BLOOMING Beauty, brilliant wit,
Shall with life's ſhort moment flit:
Brighter Virtue muſt endure
Everlaſting and ſecure.
That ſhall gild our ſolemn hours,
Strew our thorny path with flowers,
Dry affliction's riſing tear,
Eaſe the mind of every fear.
Even to our lateſt breath,
In the cold embrace of death,
When each hope of life ſhall fail,
When the quivering lip grows pale,
When the languid pulſe beats low,
When the cheek forgets to glow,
When the heavy eye is clos'd,
And once-buſy frame compos'd;
Even then ſhall Virtue's voice
Bid the Chriſtian's ſoul rejoice;
Bid her look beyond the gloom
Of the dread-inſpiring tomb,
Wrapt in ſhades of endleſs night,
To the realms of laſting light,
Where a Saviour's boundleſs love
Death for aver ſhall remove.

AFFAIRS OF FRANCE,

Continued from Page 307.

On the 13th of Oct. after a report made by the committee of public inſtruction, it was decreed that all public and private acts may be paſſed and recorded every day of the year; that the adminiſtrators, tribunals, and public functionaries, ſhall not take vacation or reſt, except on the 10th, 20th, and 30th of each month, or on the laſt day of each decade; and that the committee of legiſlation be charged to make the conſtitutional epochs agree with the new calendar.

On the 16th of October, on the report of the committee of public ſafety, the convention decreed, that foreigners, born ſubjects of powers with which the republic is at war, ſhall be impriſoned till the peace; that they ſhall be treated with tenderneſs; that women married to foreigners before the promulgation of this law, ſhall not be compriſed in it, unleſs they ſhould be ſuſpected themſelves, or married to a ſuſpected perſon.

Voulland, in the name of the committee of general ſafety, informed the convention, that the trial of Marie Antoinette had laſted three days; that being found guilty, ſhe had been condemned to death, and had been executed an hour ago.

Immediately after the ſentence had been paſſed, the committee, as a meaſure of general ſafety, ordered the two official pleaders, who had been allowed to defend Marie Antoinette, to be taken into cuſtody. It was ſuppoſed, that they might have been entruſted with ſome ſecrets of importance. The committee directed them to be ſent to the Luxembourg, where they were treated with all that attention which was due to them. Their confinement was to expire in 24 hours.

The committee deputed ſome of its members to wait on Chaveau and Treuſſon de Coudray, the pleaders, to take their declaration.

Chaveau's declaration was as follows: 'My conference with Marie Antoinette laſted no more than three quarters of an hour, and the converſation was carried on loud enough to be heard by four perſons who were in the room. Antoniette made no declaration to me of importance: ſhe ſpoke only of her trial: in all her queſtions, ſhe diſcovered the deepeſt diſſimulation. The only unguarded phraſe ſhe made uſe of, was the following: *I fear no one but Manuel.* The ſubſequent trait is a ſufficient proof of her artifice. As ſhe was on her way from the revolutionary tribunal, to the Conciergerie, after her firſt examination, ſhe aſked me if I did not think that ſhe infuſed too much dignity into her replies? I put the queſtion to you in conſequence of hearing a woman ſay to her companion, '*Obſerve how proud ſhe is.*'

Trouſſon's declaration was as follows: 'Marie Antoinette confided nothing of importance to me. She only gave me two pieces of gold and a lock of her hair, which ſhe requeſted me to ſend to a woman of the name of Piorris, who lives at Lyvry, with the female citizen La Porte: Piorris, ſhe ſaid, was her particular friend.'

Voulland concluded his report from the committee of general ſafety, by propoſing that Chaveau and Trouſſon Le Coudray ſhould be ſet at liberty, and that it ſhould be declared that they had done nothing in the courſe of their defence of Marie Antoinette to merit cenſure.

On the 21ſt of October, the popular ſociety of St. Denis brought the rich and valuable caſes which contained the hearts of the deceaſed kings. It announced that it would equip a troop at its own expence; and that any Jacobin cavalry would be much better than that of the Hulans of the deſpots.—The convention decreed, that the town of St. Denis ſhall henceforth be called Franciade.

A member demanded the proſcription of the kings of hearts, diamonds, clubs, and ſpades, of their queens, and their whole pack; requeſting that there might be ſubſtituted for them, figures emblematical of the reign of liberty.—To this Chabot anſwered: 'You will never ſucceed in correcting the immorality of gameſters. I demand that the above requeſt be referred to the committee of public ſafety, which, after a mature examination, will adviſe you to paſs to the order of the day.' Leonard Bourdon added: 'The decree which proſcribed all feudal and royal ſigns, has neceſſarily proſcribed cards, which repreſent kings and queens. The municipalities ought to enforce this law. I move for the order of the day, on account of the pre-exiſting decree.' This was adopted.

A ſevere decree was then paſſed againſt the prieſts, by one article of which all are to be tranſported, who have not taken the oath preſcribed by the 39th article of the

decree

decree of the 24th of July 1790, and regulated by the 21ſt and 28th article of the decree of the 30th of the ſame month, and by the 2darticle of the law, 27th of Nov. of the ſame year, or thoſe having retracted, even if they had taken the oath ſince their recantation.—And all prieſts thus ſubject to tranſportation, if found at large after a certain period, are ſubject to the penalty of death. By the 12th article, the prieſts who have taken the oath preſcribed by the laws of the 24th of July and the 27th of November 1790, and that of Liberty and Equality in the time determined, and who are accuſed of inciviſm, ſhall be embarked without delay, and tranſported to the weſtern coaſt of Africa, from the 23d to the 28th degree. By the 13th article, the denunciation of inciviſin ſhall be made by ſix citizens of the canton, and judged by the directory of the department on advice of the diſtrict. And by the 19th, any citizen concealing a prieſt ſubject to tranſportation ſhall incur the ſame puniſhment.

Commiſſioners from the department of Allier announced, that this department was completely regenerated; that to religious feaſts have ſucceeded civil feaſts terminated by banquets; that the biſhop of Moulins, inſtead of his croſs and mitre, makes uſe of a pike and a red cap, in the exerciſe of his paſtoral functions; that over the gates of the burial grounds is the following inſcription—*Death is an eternal ſleep*. The people ſay, that if the fall of kings found republics, that of prieſts can alone ſecure liberty: that a revolutionary army exacts money from the rich to ſupport the families of the defenders of their country. Theſe commiſſioners depoſited upon the deſk, a golden croſs, weighing ten marks ſet with diamonds, and 46 marks of ſilver. They were admitted to the honours of the ſitting.

On the 25th of October, Fabre d'Eglantine made a report upon the names to be introduced into the new calendar. This was followed by a plan, which the convention adopted with ſome modifications; of which this is the ſubſtance: the three autumnal months are to be called—Vindemaire, Brumaire, Fremaire; the winter months—Nivos, Pluvios, Ventos; the ſpring months—Germinal, Floreal, Prairial; and the ſummer months—Meſſidor, Herbidor, Fructidor: the days of each decade are—Primedi, Duodi, Tridi, Quatridi, Quintidi, Sextidi, Septidi, Octodi, Nonodi, Decadi: the five days lately called complementary, are to be called the Sans Culotides, and are to be dedicated to feſtivals of Virtue, Genius, Labour, Opinion, and Rewards! The word *decade* ſignifies ten days. The French divide their months into three parts; of courſe there are three decades in a month, and the above are the names of the days.

On the 27th, a letter was received from the commiſſioners of the convention at Breſt, which marks a more than ordinary degree of ferocity in the people. It was as follows: 'The news of the puniſhment of the late queen has filled every heart with the moſt lively joy.' On this intelligence, the popular aſſembly met; an unanimous ſhout was heard of Vive la Republique. The intelligence was received in the playhouſe with enthuſiaſm. All the ſhips in the harbour received a general invitation to celebrate it by a diſcharge of 24 guns.

On the 31ſt of October, Briſſot, and 20 other deputies, ſuffered under the axe of the guillotine. The following is the official report publiſhed by order of the revolutionary tribunal on this head: The tribunal, on the declaration of the jury, ſtating 'that Briſſot, Verginaud, Genſonne, Duprat, Valaze, Lehardi, Ducos, Boyer Fonfrede, Boileau, Gardien, Duchatel, Sillery, Fauchet, Duperret, La Source, Carra, Beauvau, Mainvelle, Antibouf, Viget, and Lacaze, are the authors or accomplices in a conſpiracy which has exiſted againſt the unity and indiviſibility of the republic, againſt the liberty and ſafety of the French people, condemns the abovementioned perſons to death; declares their effects confiſcated for the uſe of the republic, and orders that the ſentence be executed in the Place de la Revolution, and that it be printed and diſtributed throughout the republic.'

Valaze, one of the condemned, ſtabbed himſelf, after he had heard his ſentence. The tribunal ordered, that the body of the ſuicide be brought to the Place de la Revolution, that it may be buried with the other condemned deputies, in the ſame place.

The execution took place between eleven and twelve, on Friday, November 1. Duchatel, Ducos, Boyer Fonfrede, and Lehardi, were particularly diſtinguiſhed by their firm and intrepid behaviour. Even while under the axe, they exclaimed Vive la Republique! Briſſot was ſilent. Sillery bowed low to the people, and had a confeſſor. The prelate Fauchet diſcourſed very ſeriouſly with his confeſſor. Carra appeared indifferent, ſaid little, and looked contemptuouſly. La Source, who was formerly a miniſter of the proteſtant church, expreſſed much penitence. Of the con-

duct

duct of the reſt no particulars are mentioned. In ſhort, the whole time required to cut off the heads of theſe criminals, was only thirty-ſeven minutes!

Thus periſhed, through the influence of that convention which aboliſhed royalty, the very men who ſtood the foremoſt in the work of eſtabliſhing republicaniſm on its ruins, and who were, at the time, the moſt inveterate enemies of the king whom they have ſo ſoon followed to the ſcaffold.

In the convention, on the 1ſt of November, ſome citizens of the department of Nievre came to preſent the fruits of their ſearch in that department. They delivered 17 trunks filled with gold, ſilver, money, and plate, amounting to ſeveral millions. Three of theſe citizens carried croſſes of ſilver; a fourth, a ſun of gold, ſurmounted by the cap of liberty; and a fifth, a ducal crown of ſilver gilt. The crown was ordered to be trodden under foot by the uſhers; a ceremony which was performed amid the ſhouts of Vive la Republique! and the whole was ordered to the mint.

On the 5th of November, Lequinio and Laignelot, repreſentatives of the people at Rochefort, wrote, that eight conſtitutional prieſts, and a proteſtant miniſter, had abjured their errors in the temple of Truth, *ci-devant* the pariſh church, and had promiſed to teach nothing but ſound morality, and the hatred of all political and religious tyranny. They confirmed their oath by burning their letters of ordination. There is to be in future in this town but one church; and a copy of the Rights of Man, and the conſtitutional act is depoſited in the tabernacle.

On the 6th of Nov. the popular ſociety of Mennecy, in the diſtrict of Corbeuil, offered all the ornaments of their church, and declared that they did not want any rector. They wiſhed that the parſonage-houſe ſhould be ſold, and that the church ſhould be converted into a place of aſſembly for the popular ſociety, in which the buſts of Marat and Le Pelletier ſhould be ſubſtituted for the ſtatues of St. Peter and St. Denis. The convention paſſed to the order of the day.

A deputation from the popular ſocieties of Verſailles, was admitted to the bar. They informed the convention that the biſhop of the department of Seine and Oiſe was dead.—'Will your legiſlators ſuffer his biſhopric to be filled? Will you, who have deſtroyed the throne, preſerve the pontifical canopy? Will you cheriſh the croſier? The citizen and the legiſlator ſhould acknowledge no other worſhip, but that of liberty—no other altars but thoſe of the republic—no other prieſts but the magiſtrates. Legiſlators, imitate the Jews, deſcend from the mountain, break the golden calf to pieces, and let the ark of the conſtitution be the only idol of the French.' Ordered to be inſerted in the bulletin.

This day, Philippe Egalité, heretofore duke of Orleans (who voted for the death of his ſovereign and near relation) was tried before the revolutionary tribunal, condemned, and, in three hours after the ſentence, guillotined in the Place de la Revolution. In his way to the place of execution, he regarded the populace with the utmoſt firmneſs, but in paſſing the Place d'Egalité, where ſtood his heretofore palace, he appeared much affected, and continued ſo till he loſt ſight of it. He was accompanied by Couſtard, the deputy, and three other criminals. He ſpoke not a word all the way, and on his arrival at the ſcaffold aſcended it the firſt, and laid his head on the block with a firmneſs and courage, which, from a man whoſe cowardice was known to all Europe, was aſtoniſhing. All the eſtates of this criminal prince will go to ſwell the income of this new republic. His rental, before the corruption, he was obliged to practiſe during the revolution, plunged him deeply in debt, amounted to near 150,000l. per annum. On the compoſition made with his creditors, his allowance was 25,000l. annually.—He has left behind him four children, three ſons and a daughter. The eldeſt, heretofore duc de Chartres, eſcaped with Dumourier; the other two ſons, whoſe titles were, the duc de Montpenſier and count de Beaujolois, are priſoners, having been arreſted with the other members of the Bourbon family. Mademoiſelle d'Orleans is with madame Genlis, the wife of Sillery, and now in Switzerland. What connection there was between d'Orleans and Sillery does not appear, any more than their guilt; it is only remarkable, that on the trial of Sillery, his being the confidant of Orleans was mentioned as his chief crime; as on the trial of the latter, the chief imputation was his being the friend of Sillery.

On the 7th of November, a letter was read, ſigned Parent, rector of Boſſie la Bertraude, dated Nov. 4. The writer of this letter aſſerts, that religion is a mere impoſture, and that, renouncing its tenets, he means to preach henceforth the principles of republican morality only.—The convention, after a ſhort debate, decreed honourable mention of this letter.

Gobet,

Gobet, archbiſhop of Paris, attended by his vicar, alſo abjured his epiſcopal functions, and the religion of Chriſt. Loud cries of Vive la Republique, reſounded at this moment throughout the hall.

The archbiſhop was followed by the rector Tangirard, and ſeveral other prieſts; among others, by a Proteſtant miniſter of the name of Julien of Toulouſe, a member of the convention, and many other biſhops, who imitated the apoſtacy of the archbiſhop of Paris, and were received with no leſs applauſe, and with the civic kiſs on the part of the preſident.

On the motion of Lindet, the convention decreed that the Civic Fêtes ſhall henceforth be the fixed order of the day, in order to aboliſh all religious ceremonies.

David propoſed, that a Coloſſal monument be raiſed in the hall of the commonalty of Paris, to manifeſt the ſuppreſſion of all religious worſhip. This Coloſſus is to bear upon its front the word Light; upon the breaſt, Nature and Truth; and upon the arms, Strength and Courage! According to David's motion, the convention decreed the whole, reſerving however to its own diſcretion the digeſt of the aforeſaid motion.

On the 8th of November, Merlin, of Thionville, called the attention of the members to the ſtate of the department of Vendée (part of Poitou) which he ſaid exhibited nothing to the view of travellers but aſhes and dead bodies. He was of opinion, that they ought to prevent the ſeed committed to the earth from being abandoned, and they ought this year to endeavour to derive greater benefit from uncultivated lands. 'You ought,' ſaid he, 'to grant lands to thoſe who know how to improve them. Let the convention invite to La Vendée an unfortunate family from every canton of the republic. This new colony will inhabit the beautiful banks of the Loire, and will be intereſted in defending it againſt a new invaſion. I foreſee, that the department of La Vendée will ſoon be one of the richeſt and moſt peaceful of the republic and of Europe. I purpoſe that it ſhall be called La Vengé, (*the avenged*) and that you will decree, that all the hedges and ditches which ſeparate eſtates, and prevent communications, ſhall be deſtroyed in ſix months by the new proprietors, and replaced by ſimple boundaries; that two repreſentatives of the people ſhall repair to the towns of La Vendée, and take an account of the eſtates and farms poſſeſſed by the rebels; and that theſe eſtates ſhall be divided among the farmers who have remained faithful to their country, and who have a right to indemnification, as well as among the German refugees, who have abandoned their property for the cauſe of freedom.' Fuyan moved, that the diſcuſſion on this plan might be adjourned, and the plan itſelf referred to the committee of public ſafety. This was decreed.

On the 10th of November, the abbé de Siezes, in a long ſpeech, made an apology for his having formerly been an abbé. He offered, for the profit of the republic, an annual income of 10,000 livres, ariſing from the benefices which he formly held. —Inſertion in the bulletin.

The ſection of the Sans Culottes declared at the bar, that they will no longer have prieſts among them; and that they required the total ſuppreſſion of ſalaries hitherto paid to the miniſters of religious worſhip.

This was followed by a ſtill more ſatisfactory ſpectacle. A numerous proceſſion filed off in the hall, accompanied by national muſic. Surrounded by them, appeared a young woman of the fineſt figure, arrayed in the robes of liberty, and ſeated in a chair ornamented with leaves in feſtoons: ſhe was placed oppoſite the preſident, and Chaumette ſaid:—'The people of Paris have taken poſſeſſion of the temple which they have regenerated; the Gothic arches, which till this day have reſounded with lies, now echo the accents of truth. There all the people uttered ardent wiſhes for the proſperity of the republic: there they offered thanks to their legiſlators for the benefits they received from them. You ſee we have not taken for our feſtivals inanimate idols; it is a *chef d'œuvre* of nature whom we have arrayed in the habit of liberty: its ſacred image has inflamed all hearts. The people have but one cry—'No more Altars, 'no more Prieſts, no other God but the God of Nature.' We, their magiſtrates, accompany them from the temple of truth to the temple of laws, to celebrate a new liberty, and to requeſt that the *ci-devant* church of Notre Dame be changed into a temple conſecrated to reaſon and truth.'

This propoſal, converted into a motion, was immediately decreed, and the convention afterward declared that the people of Paris, on this day, continued to deſerve well of the country.

The goddeſs then ſeated herſelf by the ſide of the preſident, who gave her a fraternal embrace. The ſecretaries preſented themſelves to ſhare the ſame bliſs; every

one was eager to ſacrifice to the new divinity, whom ſo many ſalutations did not in the leaſt diſconcert.

During the ceremony, the orphans of the country ſung a hymn to Reaſon, compoſed by citizen Moline. The national muſic played afterward Goſſec's hymn to Liberty. The convention then mixed with the people to celebrate the feaſt of Reaſon, in her new temple.

On the 12th of November, a great number of communes came to offer ſacred vaſes, and other valuable articles in gold and ſilver, taken from the churches. Three ſections of Paris announced, that they had two whole carts loaded with ſaints before the door, and begged leave to accompany them to the mint.

The ſections of Mutius Scævola, and of the Red Cap, brought twenty hand carriages full of the precious ſpoils of the church of St. Sulpite. 'That ſuperb temple,' ſaid the orator, 'whoſe gold, marble, and braſs, reproach us with widows and orphans tears, ſhall be ſhut till the moment of its regeneration, when it ſhall be dedicated to Reaſon.'

A numerous deputation from St. Denis, now called Franciade, offered the ſaints and ornaments of the abbey and the churches. They requeſted the convention to point out a proper place to keep thoſe articles, which they brought on ſix waggons. Many of thoſe ornaments are monuments of the arts. The deputation informed the legiſlators, that they had only left behind an altar of gold, which they could not remove on account of its weight, and of the precious workmanſhip of which it conſiſted.

On the 16th of November, Manuel, a late celebrated member of the convention; general Houchard, ſucceſſor to Cuſtine, as commander of the army of the north; and general Brunet, late commander of the army in Italy; were executed in the Place de la Revolution.

On the 6th of December, the plan of Barrere for ſtopping the violences, which, in ſeveral parts of the republic had been exerciſed to cruſh the freedom of religious worſhip, was taken into conſideration. Robeſpierre preſented it, and the following decree was made:

ART. I. The national convention forbids all violence or menaces againſt the freedom of religious worſhip.

II. The vigilance of the conſtituted authorities, and the activity of the public force, ſhall be exerted to this end, and ſhall employ all the means that may be requiſite to give ſecurity to the religious worſhip of all perſuaſions.

III. The convention does not, by this decree, relax from the preceding decrees paſſed againſt refractory and turbulent prieſts, and againſt the individuals who interrupt the public tranquillity.

IV. Nor do they mean to furniſh a pretext for giving any diſturbance to patriots, and check the aſpiring flight of the public mind.

V. They invite good citizens to abſtain from all theological diſputes, in order to employ themſelves wholly in matters that concern the ſafety of their country.

Since the execution of the twenty-one deputies, and of the *ci-devant* duke of Orleans, ſome other diſtinguiſhed characters have followed to the ſcaffold; in particular, Bailly, the firſt mayor of Paris, a celebrated aſtronomer; with Barnave, Kerſaint, and Rabaud de St. Etienne, who all made the moſt conſpicuous figure in this unparalleled revolution! Madame Roland, the wife of the late miniſter, has likewiſe been executed; and the unfortunate miniſter himſelf, a fugitive, was found dead near Rouen. On the 8th inſtant alſo, madame du Barré, the celebrated miſtreſs of Louis XV, ſuffered death.

[To be continued.]

THE THEATRE.

ON Saturday, Nov. 23, a new Comedy, called THE WORLD IN A VILLAGE, was performed at Covent Garden Theatre. It is the production of the prolific pen of Mr. O'Keeffe, and, like moſt of his pieces, has more of broad humour and fun in it, than of good writing and refined ſentiment. It is indeed little more than a farce of five acts; full of eccentricity, but not deſtitute of ſeveral ſtrong ſtrokes of nature, and occaſionally ſprinkled with pointed obſervation, moral leſſons, and well enforced appeals to the heart and to the head.

The characters were thus repreſented: Doctor Grigſby, Mr. Lewis; Charles Willows, Mr. Holman; Old Willows, Mr. Hull; William Belle-Vue, Mr. Middleton; Captain Mullinahack, Mr. Johnſtone; Captain Van Sluice, Mr. Cubitt; Sir Henry Cheek, Mr. Powell; Jacky Allbutt, Mr. Fawcett: Mr. Allbutt, Mr. Quick;

Quick; Mrs. Allbutt, Mrs. Mattocks; Maria, Mrs. Mountain; Widow Belle-Vue, Mrs. Fawcett; Margery, Mrs. Platt; Lady Louiſa, Mrs. Eſten.

The following are the leading circumſtances of the plot: Allbutt, clerk of Mr. Belle-Vue, an eminent brewer, after his deceaſe, had abuſed the imprudent confidence of his widow, and artfully wormed her out of her buſineſs, her houſe and home, and her fortune, and reduced her from affluence to indigence. Married to a vulgar, low-minded woman, an affecter of taſte for poetry, and of talent for verſification, he is himſelf converted into a ridiculous rhymeſter, and ſupplies a chime, in miſerable meaſure, to almoſt every expreſſion, whether uttered or written. They have taken into their ſervice Maria, and her father, old Willows, whom they put upon the vileſt drudgery, and treat with the mortifying diſdain which generally characterizes a mixture of ſudden exultation, unwarrantable pride, and extreme ignorance. Mrs. Belle-Vue lives retired in an humble cottage in the village, in which her former ſplendid manſion is the reſidence of the upſtart Allbutt. She had, in the days of her proſperity, forced her eldeſt ſon William abroad, in order to avoid his union with Maria Willows, thinking her unworthy, from ſituation in life, of her ſon's hand. Charles Willows, the early aſſociate and intimate of Belle-Vue, had abruptly left his parents, in ſearch of his young friend. Having acquired a fortune of 200,000l. in the Eaſt Indies, he embarks his fortune on board a Dutch veſſel, commanded by Capt. Van-Sluice, and ſails in the ſame ſhip. The veſſel is captured by a French privateer, commanded by Capt. Mullinahack, an Iriſhman. In the night following the capture, an Engliſh youth, a ſailor, jumps overboard, ſwims round her, mounts her ſide, maſters the watch, releaſes his countrymen, and poſſeſſes them of the ſhip. The captain, after a deſperate ſtruggle to regain his prize, claſps the youth, and throws himſelf into the ſea with the brave ſailor. The news of this event is brought to the village in which the ſcene is laid, by Charles Willows, who had himſelf been wrecked on the Engliſh coaſt, and ſaved nothing but his jacket and trowſers. The firſt man he ſees is Captain Van-Sluice, who informs him that his fortune is ſafe, and in the hands of his agent, ſir Henry Check. Charles, in openneſs of heart, rejoices at his return to his native village, and promiſes himſelf much ſatisfaction from the cordial reception he is ſure he ſhall receive from his old companions. Finding this expectation ill-founded, from the chilling return made by two young men (who were formerly his intimates) on his firſt greeting, he perceives it is his poor appearance that cauſes ſuch coldneſs; and determines, by affecting a correſponding poverty, to try all his acquaintance, who uniformly, from the ſame motive, turn up their noſes, in contempt of his want of aſſiſtance. Lady Louiſa, however, (who is a lady of rank, but has exhauſted her little ſtores in acts of charity, is accidentally the witneſs of his ſpirit, in correcting a rudeneſs to her as a female,) falls in love with him, and hopes he may entertain a ſimilar partiality in her favour. After enjoying his humour, and after applying the touch-ſtone to the ſincerity of all the village, he at length meets his old intimate, William Belle-Vue, who had returned from his voyages, in real and extreme indigence, poſſeſſing only a few ſhillings, which he readily ſhares with his apparently poor friend. Charles Willows has an opportunity of witneſſing the hardſhips and inſults impoſed by the Allbutts on his father and ſiſter, and is accidentally diſcovered to them both, as a man of immenſe wealth, as well as a dutiful ſon, and kind brother; this diſcovery takes place in the preſence of the Allbutts, and converts their haughty diſdain into the moſt abject ſervility. When they encounter William Belle-Vue, they imagine he has alſo only pretended poverty, and are profuſe and fulſome in their offers of kindneſs. Mrs. Belle-Vue explains to them, that her ſon has really returned deſtitute of fortune, when the Allbutts are immediately as inſolently lofty and affronting, as they had, while under their error, been meanly humble and groveling. In the mean while, the loves of Lady Louiſa and Charles Willows, and thoſe of William Belle-Vue and Maria, (who, as we have before ſaid, had early loved each other,) proceed, attended with circumſtances of *equivoque*, which create diverſion.

Dr. Grigſby, formerly a barber, but who had been journeyman to an apothecary, and had ſlipped into his maſter's ſhop and his clothes at the ſame time, is a whimſical mixture of extreme folly, profound ignorance, great volatility, and ſteady impudence; hearing that Miſs Maria, by her brother's arrival, is likely to have a great fortune, he determines to make up to her, and gives riſe, by ſo doing, to her brother's

brother's miſtaking him for the object of his ſiſter's affections. Capt. Mullinahack, the brother of an Iriſh peer, who had been the captain of the French privateer, and who had jumped overboard with William Belle-Vue, returns with him to the village where William was born, and ultimately all the heterogeneous incidents in the fable are boiled down to the conſiſtence of the captain's recognizing Lady Louiſa as his daughter, and giving his conſent to her union with Charles Willows, the marriage of William Belle-Vue with Maria, the reſtoration of the deeds and eſtate of the widow Belle-Vue, voluntarily made by Allbutt, the mortifying reduction to their ordinary ſphere of life, of him and Mrs. Allbutt, and the reſtoration of the happineſs of all parties chiefly intereſted.

Jolly Boy and Margery are a miller and his wife, at whoſe houſe Lady Louiſa lodges. He is blunt and ſaucy, but generous and noble-minded, ſhe kind and complacent. They ſerve as examples, that amiable traits of the human mind may be found in humble ſituations. Maſter Jacky and Edward Bell-Vue are introduced with no neceſſary relation to the plot.

LONDON GAZETTES.

From the London Gazette, December 3.

Whitehall, December 3.

A Letter, of which the following is an extract, was yeſterday received from ſir James Murray, adjutant-general of the forces under the command of his royal highneſs the duke of York, dated Tournai, Nov. 29, 1793, by the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

'The army remained in a ſtate of tranquillity until yeſterday, about two o'clock in the afternoon, when the enemy attacked Nechin and Leers, two advanced poſts, occupied each by about 100 men. They advanced in conſiderable force, particularly againſt Nechin, and made their attack with great rapidity. The detachment poſted there, which was a piquet from the grenadier battalion of the troops of Heſſe Darmſtadt, and half a company of the Imperial free corps of O'Donnel, defended the poſt for ſome time with great gallantry; but being obliged to yield to the ſuperiority of number, they retreated toward Bailleul, while the detachment which occupied Leers, to avoid being ſurrounded, fell back to Eſtainbourg. Major general During, however, who had repaired upon the firſt alarm to the point of attack, having brought up the light infantry battalion of Heſſe-Darmſtadt from Eſtainbourg and Peck, and a party of the Hanoverian cavalry, under the command of colonel Linſingen, having advanced from Templeuve, the enemy were driven back in their turn, and the poſts re-occupied.

'The Darmſtadt troops had two men killed; captain Von Shonberg and ſeven wounded; captain Von Becker, who was likewiſe wounded, and four men taken. The corps of O'Donnel had ſix men wounded, and two taken. The Hanoverian cavalry, one man wounded. The loſs of the enemy was greater; ſeveral were found dead about the village of Nechin, and ſeven or eight taken.'

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, December 10.

Whitehall, December 9.

The diſpatches, of which the following are copies, extracts, and tranſlations, were received this day by the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

Copy of a Letter from Major General Williamſon, dated Jamaica, Oct. 8.

Sir,

I had the honour to inform you, in my letter of the 8th of September, that the next day the 13th regiment, the two flank companies of the 49th, and a detachment of artillery, were to ſail, to take poſſeſſion of Jeremie, the propoſitions of capitulation having been accepted.

Commodore Ford, in whoſe praiſe I cannot ſay too much, ſailed with the expedition. The greateſt part of the troops were embarked on board his majeſty's ſhips. Tranſports were neceſſary for the proviſions and ſtores.

The whole arrived at Jeremie, the 19th in the evening; and a deputation was ſent from the council, requeſting the Engliſh colours, that they might be immediately hoiſted; but it was judged beſt to land early the next morning, when the whole diſembarked and the colours were hoiſted at both forts, with two ſalutes of twenty-one guns, and anſwered by the commodore and his ſquadron. The troops were received with the loudeſt acclamation from all ranks.

I mentioned in my letter, that a monſieur Carles, of the etat major of the Mole, was on board of the commodore.

The commodore only remained a few hours at Jeremie after the troops were landed, ſailed for the Mole, where he arrived the 22d, and ſent monſ. Carles on ſhore. The next day, at ſeven in the morning, a deputation of twenty perſons came on board the commodore, who was cruiſing off the entrance of the Mole, to inform him, that they wiſhed to accept of the ſame capitulation as Jeremie, and begged the commodore to grant it them, which was accordingly done, and the Europa ſailed up the harbour. When the fort at Preſque Iſle ſaw the ſhip under weigh, they fired three guns as a ſignal, and hoiſted the Engliſh colours, the ſame at Fort Orleans; and when the Europa came to an anchor ſhe was ſaluted with twenty-one guns from all the forts and all the veſſels in the harbour, which was anſwered by the commodore. Fifty marines were landed, under captain Robertſon, who took the command of the garriſon. The commodore ſent a faſt ſailing ſchooner to Jeremie for ſome troops: the grenadier company of the 13th regiment was immediately embarked, and arrived at the Mole the 28th.

It being a place of ſuch importance, and literally the key of St. Domingo, I judged it neceſſary to ſtrengthen the garriſon; accordingly lieutenant-colonel Danſey, with five companies of the 49th regiment, ſailed the 7th on board two of the frigates; and I ſhall order the remaining three companies to hold themſelves in readineſs for embarkation on board of another frigate.

The packet not ſailing till the 21ſt, and two ſhips ſailing the 20th, one for London and the other for Liverpool, I have the honour to ſend you a ſhort ſketch of our operations, and ſhall be more explicit by the packet. I have the honour to be, &c.

ADAM WILLIAMSON.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

Terms of Capitulation propoſed by the Inhabitants of La Grande Anſe (including the Quarter at Jeremie) repreſented by Monſ. de Charmilly, poſſeſſed of full powers by a Commiſſion from the Council of Public Safety of the aforeſaid Place, dated the 18th of Aug. 1793, and preſented to his Excellency Major-general Williamſon, his Majeſty's Lieutenant-governor of Jamaica, for his Acceptance.

Article I. That the proprietors of St. Domingo, deprived of all recourſe to their lawful ſovereign to deliver them from the tyranny under which they now groan, implore the protection of his Britannic majeſty, and take the oath of fidelity and allegiance to him; and ſupplicate him to take their colony under his protection, and to treat them as good and faithful ſubjects till a general peace; at which period they ſhall be finally ſubjected to the terms then agreed upon between his Britannic majeſty, the government of France, and the allied powers, with reſpect to the ſovereignty of St. Domingo.—Anſwer. Granted.

II. That, till order and tranquillity are reſtored at St. Domingo, the governor appointed by his Britannic majeſty ſhall have full power to regulate and direct whatever meaſures of ſafety and police he ſhall judge proper.—Anſ. Granted.

III. That no one ſhall be moleſted on account of any anterior diſturbances, except thoſe who are legally accuſed, in ſome court of juſtice, of having committed murder, or of having deſtroyed property by fire, or of having inſtigated others to commit thoſe crimes.—Anſ. Granted.

IV. That the Mulattoes ſhall have all the privileges enjoyed by that claſs of inhabitants in the Britiſh lands.—Anſwer. Granted.

V. That if, at the concluſion of the war, the colony remains under the ſovereignty of his Britannic majeſty, and order is eſtabliſhed therein; in ſuch caſe, the laws reſpecting property and all civil rights, which were in force in the ſaid colony before the revolution in France, ſhall be preſerved: nevertheleſs, until a colonial aſſembly can be formed, his Britannic majeſty ſhall have the right of determining proviſionally upon any meaſures which the general good and the tranquillity of the colony may require; but that no aſſembly ſhall be called till order is eſtabliſhed in every part of the colony; and, till that period, his Britannic majeſty's governor ſhall be aſſiſted in all the details of adminiſtration and police by a committee of ſix perſons, which he ſhall have the power of chooſing from among the proprietors of the three provinces of which the colony conſiſts.—Anſwer. Granted.

VI. That, in conſequence of the deva-ſtations which have taken place in the colony by inſurrections, fire, and pillage, the governor appointed by his majeſty, on taking poſſeſſion of the colony, to ſatisfy the demand of the inhabitants in this reſpect,

ſpect, ſhall be authoriſed to grant, for the payment of debts, a ſuſpenſion of ten years, which ſhall be computed from the date of the ſurrender; and the ſuſpenſion of all intereſt upon the ſame ſhall begin from the period of the 1ſt of Auguſt 1791, and terminate at the expiration of the ten years abovementioned granted for the payment of debts; but all ſums due to minors by their guardians, or to abſent planters by thoſe who have the management of their property, or from one planter to another, for the tranſfer of property, are not to be included in the above ſuſpenſion.—Anſ. Granted.

VII. That the duties of importation and exportation upon all European commodities ſhall be the ſame as in the Engliſh colonies.—Anſ. Granted. In conſequence the tariff ſhall be made public and affixed, that every one may be acquainted therewith.

VIII. That the manufacturers of white ſugars ſhall preſerve the right of exporting their clayed ſugars, ſubject to ſuch regulations as it may be neceſſary to make with reſpect to them.—Anſ. Granted. In conſequence the duties upon white ſugars ſhall be the ſame as were taken in the colony of St. Domingo in 1789.

IX. That the catholic religion ſhall be preſerved and maintained, but that no other mode of Evangelic worſhip ſhall be excluded.—Anſ. Granted. On condition that ſuch prieſts as have taken the oath preſcribed by the perſons exerciſing the powers of government in France ſhall be ſent away, and replaced by others.

X. The local taxes deſtined to acquit the expences of garriſons, and of the adminiſtration of the colony ſhall be aſſeſſed in the ſame manner as in 1789, except the alleviations and remittances which ſhall be granted to the inhabitants whoſe property has ſuffered by fire, till their poſſeſſions are repaired. An account ſhall be kept by the colony of all the ſums advanced on the part of Great Britain for ſupplying the deficiency of the ſaid taxes; which deficiency, as well as all the public expences of the colony, (except thoſe of his majeſty's naval forces, deſtined for its protection) ſhall always be defrayed by the ſaid colony.—Anſ. Granted.

XI. His Britannic majeſty's governor of St. Domingo ſhall apply to the Spaniſh government, to obtain reſtitution of the negroes and cattle ſold upon the Spaniſh territory by the revolted ſlaves.—Anſ. Granted.

XII. The importation, in American bottoms, of proviſions, cattle, grain, and wood of every kind, from the United States of America, ſhall be allowed at St. Domingo.—Anſ. Granted. On condition that the American ſhips, which ſhall be employed in this trade, ſhall have only one deck; and this importation ſhall be allowed only as long as it ſhall appear neceſſary for the re-eſtabliſhment or ſubſiſtence of the colony, or until meaſures have been taken for putting it in this reſpect upon the ſame footing as other Engliſh colonies; and an exact account ſhall be kept of the ſaid veſſels, with the deſcription of their cargoes, and ſhall be tranſmitted every three months to the right honourable the lords commiſſioners of his majeſty's treaſury, as well as to one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate; and on no account whatever ſhall any of the ſaid veſſels be allowed to take in return any production of the colony, except molaſſes and rum.

XIII. No part of the aforeſaid conditions ſhall be conſidered as a reſtriction to the power of the parliament of Great Britain, to regulate and determine the political government of the colony.—Anſwer, Granted.

The Addreſs from the Members of the Council of Public Safety at Jeremie to his Majeſty.

Sire,

Permit your new ſubjects to offer their firſt homage to your majeſty, and to pay to you the tribute of gratitude due to your kindneſs to us.

Fame had long ago informed us of your majeſty's many excellent virtues, by which your majeſty has been guided in the generous part you have taken reſpecting the misfortunes of France, and of the iſland of St. Domingo.

We were informed by monſ. de Charmilly, one of our countrymen, who came to this part of the world with orders from your majeſty's miniſters, of the deep concern your majeſty had felt at our misfortunes, from which we have been delivered by the goodneſs of your majeſty, to whom we owe our preſent happineſs.

Governor Williamſon, commodore Ford and colonel Whitelocke, animated by the ſame ſentiments as your majeſty, have already made us ſenſible of the great advantage of belonging to your majeſty.

We humbly ſupplicate your majeſty to be perſuaded that our gratitude will be equal to the kindneſs we have experienced, and that your new ſubjects will emulate thoſe

thoſe who have long lived under your laws in obedience, ſubmiſſion and reſpect.

We are, Sire, your majeſty's very humble and very faithful ſubjects,

The members of the council of ſafety.
(Signed)

Lacombe, preſident. Chapeau, Mathieu, Dobignier, Tattegrain, Faverange, Cattegrais.—P. Troze Magnan, ſec.

Extract of a Letter from Lieutenant-colonel William Danſey to Major-general Williamſon, dated Cape Nicola Mole, October 18, 1793.

In conſequence of the commiſſion you honoured me with, I took the command of this town and garriſon on the 12th inſt. I found every thing properly arranged by major Robertſon, and I had then nothing to do but confirm his orders and regulations. I have ſince been menaced with an attack by Mr. Santhonax, who is come into the neighbourhood, and continues his threats. No exertions of mine ſhall be wanting on that head.

You have already heard, from commodore Ford, the ſituation and importance of this poſt, which nothing can more manifeſt than his remaining here to protect us.

Admiralty Office, Dec. 9.

Letters were this day received from commodore Ford, commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels at Jamaica, to Mr. Stephens; of which the following are Extracts, together with copies of papers therein referred to.

Europa, Mole of Cape St. Nicholas, Sept. 26, 1793.

In my letter of the 8th inſtant I informed their lordſhips that I was proceeding to Jeremie with a detachment of troops, commanded by lieutenant-colonel Whitelocke of the 13th regiment, to take a poſt at that place in the name of his Britannic majeſty, agreeable to a capitulation ſigned by general Williamſon and monſ. Charmilly; and I have the ſatisfaction to add, that the ſquadron arrived there on the evening of the 19th, and that the troops landed the ſubſequent morning, and were received by the inhabitants with every demonſtration of joy and fidelity, and the Britiſh colours hoiſted under a royal ſalute, with the uſual ceremonies on ſuch occaſions. No time was loſt in landing the artillery and ſtores, and, as the weather was ſuſpicious, the anchorage bad, and a heavy ſea ſetting in, I judged it beſt to quit the bay in the evening, there being no danger to be apprehended from the naval force of the enemy; and, in order to give colonel Whitelocke an opportunity to ſecure himſelf as ſoon as poſſible, I directed captain Rowley, of his majeſty's ſhip Penelope, to take the Iphigenia, Hermione, and Spitfire ſchooner, under his command, and proceed to Bay des Flamands, near St. Louis, on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, and endeavour, by way of a diverſion, to take or deſtroy ſome merchant ſhips that were to remain there during the hurricane months, and I proceeded myſelf, with the Europa, Goelan brig, and Flying Fiſh ſchooner, toward the Mole, with major Carles, a French officer, belonging to the town of the Mole of Cape St. Nicholas, who had been captured, and carried into Naſſau by a Providence privateer, and afterward ſent by lord Dunmore to Jamaica, where he arrived the day before the ſquadron ſailed, with letters to the governor and myſelf. Upon examination of the major, it appeared that the garriſon and inhabitants would ſurrender themſelves to the arms of Great Britain, provided a certain number of troops could be ſent to ſupport them; and it was agreed that I ſhould carry him up in the Europa to Jeremie, and when the troops were landed, to ſend him a flag of truce to the Mole to ſound their diſpoſitions, and then for him to return to Jamaica and fix on the plan; but, as I found at Jeremie that a ſpeedy attack on the Mole was meditated by the civil commiſſaries, I thought it would be moſt conducive to his majeſty's ſervice to proceed there myſelf, in order to give all poſſible countenance to the miſſion; and, in conſequence, I ſent major Carles, on the evening of the 21ſt, on board the Flying Fiſh ſchooner, to be landed in the night at a certain ſpot, and directed the Goelan to keep between the Flying Fiſh and Europa, to give him ſupport if neceſſary. Soon after day-light, a ſignal that an enemy was in ſight, was diſcovered on board the Flying Fiſh, and, upon the Europa opening the ſouth point of the Mole, ſeveral armed veſſels were ſeen in chace of her, but which returned to the town immediately; by which circumſtance lieutenant Prevoſt was enabled to join me, and from whom I was informed that the major, with three other French gentlemen, a midſhipman and boat's crew, had been taken, in landing, by an armed ſchooner, and carried to the town, from which I drew a concluſion not very favourable to our views, and the day paſt in ſilent apprehenſion

prehenſion for the major's ſafety; but about five P. M. a gun was fired from Preſqu'ile, and, with joy, I diſcovered a private ſignal, which I had previouſly concerted with the French officer; on which I approached the battery as near as poſſible, under the neceſſary precautions, and, about nine o'clock, a boat came off with ſeveral officers belonging to Dillon's regiment, with profeſſions of friendſhip and fidelity to the king of Great Britain; at the ſame time aſſuring me that, unleſs they received immediate ſupport, all would be loſt; that the blacks and mulattoes at Jean Rabel, amounting to eight or ten thouſand, were expected every hour to attack them; that the inhabitants, from ſevere duty and extreme miſery, were divided and relaxed into deſpondency, and in contemplation to fly to America, and that their goods were embarked in the veſſels in the port for that purpoſe; that the troops of the line (through the intrigues of the civil commiſſaries) manifeſted ſtrong ſymptoms to a general mutiny, and that they had ſent fifty-five mutineers of Dillon's regiment to Charleſtown the day before: from theſe circumſtances I evidently ſaw that no time was to be loſt, and I determined, from that moment, to try what could be done with the force of the ſquadron; to which end I ſent the officers on ſhore to get the capitulation ſigned (it being exactly the ſame as that of Jeremie, with the addition of the laſt article reſpecting the officers and troops of the garriſon) with which they returned ſoon after daylight in the morning, and having publicly accepted it on the quarter-deck, with Vive le Roi d'Angleterre! and three cheers on each ſide, I proceeded to the anchorage without heſitation, hoiſted the Britiſh flag on ſeveral batteries, and took poſſeſſion of the town and its dependencies (the pariſh of Bombarde and platform included) in the name of his Britannic majeſty, with the marines of the Europa, commanded by captain Robinſon, an officer of diſtinguiſhed merit and abilities in his profeſſion, and whom I have directed to act as brevet-major for the preſent, in order to give him ſuperior rank to the late commandant, till general Williamſon can make the neceſſary arrangements; holding 200 ſeamen in readineſs to land, if neceſſary, at a moment's warning; and I have the ſatisfaction of informing their lordſhips, that we are in full poſſeſſion of the fineſt harbour in the Weſt Indies, guarded by batteries incredibly ſtrong. An account of the ordnance, ammunition, and military ſtores in the magazines, you will receive herewith.

I cannot conclude my letter without expreſſing my approbation of the firm and regular conduct of the officers, ſeamen, and marines of the ſquadron under my command, particularly captains Gregory and Wolley, whoſe zeal and attention have been unuſually conſpicuous on this occaſion: and I ſhould be wanting in juſtice to the officers and troops of the garriſon, if I did not ſtate their merit in having ſo long reſiſted the dangerous principles of the civil commiſſaries, and maintained, with firmneſs and energy, thoſe of a monarchical government, which no perſuaſion could ſhake or intrigue confound. I am, &c.

JOHN FORD.

ARTICLE XIV.

Being the laſt of the capitulation, referred to in the preceding letter.

The ſtaff, the detachment of the corps of royal artillery, and the ſecond battalion of Dillon, compoſing the garriſon of Cape Nicholas Mole, accept the above conditions, requeſt to continue upon their eſtabliſhments, and to be taken into the pay of Great Britain; and if, at the general peace, the colony of St. Domingo ſhall remain in the poſſeſſion of his Britannic majeſty, and that the abovementioned French officers cannot, by the laws of England, continue in his ſervice, they ſhall in ſuch caſe be entitled to half-pay for life.

We the commanders and ſtaff-officers of Cape Nicholas Mole, commanders, officers, and ſoldiers of the ſecond battalion of Dillon, officers and ſoldiers of the corps of royal artillery, inhabitants and proprietors of the town of the Mole, accept, as far as we are individually concerned, and for all other inhabitant of the ſame, the fourteen articles of the above capitulation, promiſing faithfully to adhere to every part of them.

Done at Cape Nicholas Mole, the 22d of September 1793.

Signed by the ſtaff-officers, the officers of the royal artillery and thoſe of Dillon, and ſeveral inhabitants of Cape Nicholas Mole, and accepted by commodore Ford.

Here follows a return of ordnance, ammunition, and artillery ſtores, in the magazines, &c.

Europa, Mole of Cape St. Nicholas, October 27.

In addition to my letter of the 26th ult.

ult. you will be pleaſed to inform their lordſhips, that the Flying Fiſh ſchooner, which I ſent to col. Whitelocke at Jeremie with a requiſition for a ſmall force for the preſent, returned on the 28th ult. with the grenadier company of the 13th regiment; and his majeſty's ſhips Penelope and Iphigenia arrived on the 11th and 12th inſt. from Jamaica with five companies of the 49th regiment, commanded by lieut. colonel Danſey, whom governor Williamſon has appointed commandant of this diſtrict. On the arrival of theſe ſhips I was informed of the ſucceſs of the frigates which I had ordered to make a diverſion at Flamand's Bay near St. Louis, and have incloſed an account of the captures they made, * though their merchant ſhips, to a conſiderable amount, had eſcaped to Aux Cayes, upon their receiving intelligence of the Britiſh troops being landed at St. Jeremie.

You will alſo acquaint their lordſhips, that I ſeized, upon my arrival here, a large ſchooner in the ſervice of the republic, commanded by monſieur Anquetin, formerly a lieutenant of the Jupiter; and as ſhe is a very fine veſſel, mounting ten ſix and four pounders, I have taken her into his majeſty's ſervice.

The ſchooner was, at that time, called the National Convention, but formerly the Marie Antoinette, which laſt name I have thought proper to continue, and have given the command of her to lieut. Perkins, an officer of zeal, vigilance and activity.

I have alſo to acquaint their lordſhips that we have hitherto remained in ſecurity; but the civil commiſſaries, upon their receiving accounts that the Mole was in our poſſeſſion, had prepared an expedition to attack it, and had actually proceeded as far as Port au Paix with the Hyæna and ſeveral other armed tranſports and ſmall craft, with all the troops that could be collected, amounting to 5000 or upwards; but the frigates arriving very opportunely from Jamaica, I was enabled to block them up in port, where they ſtill remain; and, as Mr. Santhonax has in conſequence gone by land to Port au Prince, I am in great hopes that, by their means, the expedition will be entirely fruſtrated. I am, &c.

JOHN FORD.

Whitehall, Dec. 9.

Extract of a Letter from Colonel Sir James Murray, Adjutant General to the Forces under the Command of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, to Mr. Secretary Dundas, dated Tournay, Dec. 3.

The enemy made an attack the 30th of laſt month upon general Walmoden's advanced poſts upon the Lys. They paſſed that river about one o'clock in the afternoon, at Comines and Bouſbecke, where they had conſtructed bridges; that at Bouſbecke under the protection of four pieces of cannon.

At the latter place they had paſſed over with about 200 men, when major Linſingen, with 14 men of the regiment of Hanoverian light cavalry, and the 1ſt battalion of grenadiers of the ſame nation, with which he had advanced upon the firſt alarm, attacked them without heſitation, though he was expoſed to a ſevere fire of grape-ſhot from the oppoſite ſide of the river. The enemy's detachment was entirely defeated and deſtroyed, five officers and 48 men being taken, and the reſt killed. The conduct and bravery of major Linſingen, and the behaviour of the troops under his command, are ſpoken of by general Walmoden in terms of the higheſt commendation. The Hanoverians had two officers, lieutenants Aly and Martin, wounded, four men killed, and eight wounded.

That body of the enemy, which paſſed the Lys at Comines, drove back the poſts of Ten Briel and Sandtforde, which were occupied by a company and a half of the Imperial free corps of Grun Laudohn. A party of about two or three hundred men penetrated between theſe and the other poſts, ſo that this detachment was almoſt entirely cut off, and upward of 100 men have either been killed or fallen into their hands. Upon the arrival of a reinforcement, which had been ſent by general Walmoden to the ſupport of Sandtforde and Ten Briel, the enemy fell back, and the different corps have taken up their former poſitions.

From the London Gazette of Dec. 10.

Admiralty Office, Dec. 10.

Captain Paſley, of his majeſty's ſhip Bellerophon, in his letter to Mr. Stephens, dated the 28th of November, mentions, that the ſhips under his command had, on the preceding day, captured near Uſhant the National corvette La Blonde, mounting 28 guns, manned with 210 men, and commanded by citizen Gueria. And ſir

* Namely, 3 ſhips, 2 brigs, 2 ſloops, and 4 ſchooners.

Edward Peſlew, captain of his majeſty's ſhip La Nymphe, in his letter of the 3d inſt. gives an account of his having, in company with the Circe, taken on the 30th ult. between Breſt and Uſhant, the national ſloop of war L'Eſpiegle, pierced for 16 guns, manned with 100 men, and commanded by Monſ. Pierre Biller, Enſeign de Vaiſſeau.

From the London Gazette, December 14.

Manheim, Dec 2.

On the 29th ult. the French troops, to the number of 30,000 men, attacked the duke of Brunſwick in the retrenchments of Landau, but were repulſed with great loſs. A ſecond attack was made by them on the 30th, when they were again compelled to retreat, and the duke of Brunſwick having learnt, the following day, that a body of the French was again formed at Rainſtein, his ſerene highneſs immediately marched to attack them, and ſucceeded in driving them beyond Hombourg, after taking from them their baggage, artillery, and ammunition. On the ſame day a general attack was made on the whole line of general Wurmſer's army, and, after an engagement which laſted the whole day, the French were driven beyond Straſbourg.

Bruſſels, Dec. 10. The particulars of the frequent actions which general Wurmſer and the duke of Brunſwick had with the French army on the 29th and 30th of November, and the 1ſt and 2d of December, have not yet been received here, further than that the French were repulſed with conſiderable loſs on thoſe ſeveral days; the number of French killed, wounded, and taken priſoners, according to the beſt accounts, appearing not to be leſs than 15,000 men.

From the London Gazette, Dec. 24.

Whitehall, December 23.

The diſpatches, of which the following are a copy and extracts, were received laſt night from Toulon by the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

SIR, Toulon, Nov. 18, 1793.

On the evening of the 15th inſt. Fort Mulgrave, ſituated on the heights of Balaguier, one of the moſt eſſential poſts that cover this town and harbour, was vigorouſly and repeatedly attacked by a large corps of the enemy. I have particular pleaſure in mentioning, that, on this occaſion, the very ſpirited exertions of the Britiſh troops, ſtationed at Fort Mulgrave, conſiſting of a detachment of the 2d battalion of the firſt or Royal regiment of foot, commanded by capt. D. Campbell, and of a detachment of the Royal artillery, commanded by lieutenant Lemoine, were the principal means of repulſing the enemy, and ſaving that important poſt.

The enemy, from the corroborating accounts of different deſerters, are ſaid to have loſt in this attack about 600 men, killed and wounded. Our loſs, including the Spaniards, Neapolitans, and Sardinians, amounted only to 61. Among the wounded were captain Duncan Campbell, of the Royals, and lieutenant Lemoine of the Royal Artillery, who, I am happy to add, are now in a favourable ſtate of recovery. I have the honour to be, &c. CHA. O'HARA.

Right Hon. Henry Dundas.

Extract of a Letter from their Excellencies the Commiſſioners at Toulon to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his Majeſty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department, dated Toulon, Nov. 23, 1793.

We had the honour of receiving his majeſty's commiſſion, together with inſtructions for the regulation of our conduct, on the 14th inſt.

On the 20th we deſired a deputation of the inhabitants to attend us at the governor's houſe. His excellency thought it beſt, for the ſake of avoiding all miſunderſtanding, to ſpeak on this occaſion from a written paper, of which we have the honour to incloſe a copy.

We then read, according to his majeſty's commands, a declaration in his majeſty's name; a copy of which is incloſed.

We delivered copies of theſe papers to the chief of the deputation, and directed them to be printed, publiſhed, and circulated as generally as poſſible.

We had the pleaſure to obſerve, that his majeſty's gracious and honourable declaration was received with the ſtrongeſt marks of gratitude and ſatisfaction.

His Excellency Governor O'Hara's Speech to the Deputation of Inhabitants on the 20th of November, 1793.

Gentlemen,

As ſoon as the king was informed of the events which had taken place at Toulon,

his majeſty was deſirous to give an authentic proof, not only of the ſatisfaction which he had experienced from theſe events, but alſo of his entire approbation of the engagements which had been entered into, in his name, with the town of Toulon. His majeſty was alſo deſirous to give you a poſitive aſſurance that he will punctually fulfil thoſe engagements.

His majeſty is ſenſible that the poſſeſſion of this town, under all the circumſtances in which it was accepted, preſents to his attention objects of the greateſt importance, and lays him under the moſt ſacred obligations. His majeſty has already taken, and will continue to take, every meaſure, which circumſtances will permit, for the protection of the town and of its inhabitants. With a view of providing for theſe objects, and of fulfilling, as effectually as poſſible, the other duties which ariſe from the preſent ſituation of his majeſty with reſpect to the town and inhabitants of Toulon, he has thought proper to confide to lord Hood, ſir Gilbert Elliot, bart. and myſelf, a commiſſion, which was lately delivered to us, under the great ſeal of England.

By this commiſſion we are authorized to act, in his majeſty's name, in the direction of the affairs and civil intereſts of Toulon, as alſo of all other places and diſtricts in France, which may be occupied by his majeſty's arms, or come into his poſſeſſion; and there to provide for the eſtabliſhment of good order and of a regular government, for the impartial adminiſtration of juſtice, and the protection of perſons and property.

Theſe, gentlemen, are the powers, immediately relative to the affairs and concerns of Toulon, with which his majeſty has been pleaſed to intruſt us, and which we have thought proper to impart to you. I will not add any thing reſpecting the honourable intentions and generous diſpoſitions of his majeſty, becauſe they will be more particularly and more ſatisfactorily explained to you by a declaration which, by his order, we ſhall addreſs to the inhabitants of Toulon, and publiſh in his name. I ſhall now conclude by reading it to you.

[Here follows the Declaration, addreſſed by lord Hood, ſir Gilbert Elliot, and general O'Hara (commiſſioners on the part of his Majeſty) to the inhabitants of Toulon; the tenour and purport the ſame as that addreſſed to the commanders of his majeſty's troops, &c. *See page* 375.]

From the London Gazette Extraordinary, December 25, 1793.

Whitehall, December 25. The diſpatches, of which the following are copies and an extract, were yeſterday received from major general David Dundas, vice admiral lord Hood, and ſir Gilbert Elliot, baronet, by the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, dated Toulon, Nov. 30, and Dec. 1, 1793.

Sir, Toulon, Nov. 30.

I have the honour to acquaint you, that the enemy, having opened a conſiderable battery on the Height of Arennes, which much annoyed one of our principal outpoſts (Malbouſquet,) it became neceſſary to attack it. Diſpoſitions for that purpoſe were made, and this morning, at five o'clock, a corps of four hundred Britiſh, three hundred Sardinians, ſix hundred Neapolitans, ſix hundred Spaniards, and four hundred French, under my command, marched from the town. Notwithſtanding the whole was obliged to croſs the new river on one bridge only, to divide it into four columns, to march acroſs olive grounds, interſected by ſtone walls, and to aſcend a very conſiderable height, cut into wine terraſſes, yet we ſucceeded in ſurpriſing and forcing the enemy, and were ſoon in full poſſeſſion of the battery and height: but, I am ſorry to ſay, that, inſtead of forming upon and occupying the long and narrow ſummit of the hill, agreeable to orders and military prudence, the impetuoſity of the troops led them to follow the enemy, to deſcend the height, to aſcend other diſtant heights, and, at laſt, in diſorder, to encounter ſuch ſuperior advancing numbers, as obliged them precipitately to retire, and to relinquiſh the advantages we at firſt gained.

It is with much concern I muſt add, that lieutenant general O'Hara, who had arrived at the battery on our firſt ſucceſs, was involved in the conſequence of this ſudden reverſe, was wounded in the arm, and made priſoner.

We have to regret that ſo many gallant officers and men have ſuffered on this occaſion. The loſs of the Britiſh I have the honour to incloſe; that of the other nations is not in proportion great.

From general O'Hara's abſence the command devolves on me. I ſhall endeavour to diſcharge it to the beſt of my ability and health, till his majeſty's further pleaſure is ſignified.

ſignified. With great reſpect, I have the honour to be, &c.

Signed, D. DUNDAS, major general.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

Total return of the killed, wounded, and miſſing, of the Britiſh troops on the 30th of November, 1793, at Toulon.

One lieutenant, 1 ſerjeant, 18 rank and file, killed; 4 captains, 4 lieutenants, 2 ſerjeants, 2 drummers, 78 rank and file, wounded; 1 major, 7 ſerjeants, 2 drummers, 88 rank and file, miſſing.

Officers killed, wounded, and taken priſoners.

Lieutenant general O'Hara wounded and taken priſoner.

Captain Snow, deputy quarter maſter general, killed.

Captain Smith, 25th regiment, major of brigade, wounded.

Royals. Captain Reeves wounded and taken priſoner.

Ditto. Captain Finney wounded and taken priſoner.

Ditto. Lieutenant colonel M'Donald wounded.

Ditto. Lieutenant Mackenzie, wounded.

Ditto. Lieutenant Bird wounded and miſſing.

Ditto. Lieutenant M'Kellar killed.

69th regiment. Major Campbell taken priſoner.

Royal artillery. Captain Stephens wounded.

Ditto. Lieutenant Bradie wounded.

GEORGE SMITH, major of brigade.

Victory, Toulon Road, Nov. 30.

Sir,

The enemy having erected and opened a battery againſt the poſt of Malbouſquet, and from which ſhells would reach the town and arſenal, governor O'Hara ſignified to me yeſterday his intention to attempt to deſtroy it, and bring off the guns; and requeſted ſome ſeamen to be ſent to a poſt he propoſed to withdraw the Britiſh ſoldiers from. The governor promiſed not to go out himſelf, but unfortunately did not keep his word. A moſt clear, diſtinct, and regular plan was ſettled, and the commanding officer of the troops of each nation had a copy of it. The troops moved at four o'clock this morning, and ſurpriſed the redoubt moſt completely: never was a ſervice performed with more regularity and exactneſs; but the ardour and impetuoſity of the troops (inſtead of forming on the height where the battery was raiſed, as they were particularly ordered to do) led them to ruſh after the enemy, near a mile on the other ſide, in a very ſcattered and irregular manner. The conſequence of which was, the enemy collected in very great force; and, in the retreat of our troops, they ſuffered extremely. I herewith tranſmit an account of the loſs of the Britiſh in killed, wounded, and miſſing: but major general Dundas will give you more particulars. The governor moſt unfortunately was wounded and taken priſoner. A ſurgeon was ſent to him immediately (by permiſſion of general Du Gommier, commander in chief of the eaſtern army at the ſiege of Toulon) who reports that the governor's wound is a fleſh one only in the arm: but being faint by the loſs of blood, he was obliged to ſit down under a wall, and there made priſoner of.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HOOD.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

Extract of a Letter from Sir Gilbert Elliot, Bart. to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his Majeſty's principal Secretary of State for the Home Department.

Toulon, Dec. 1.

Knowing that general Dundas has ſent you an official account of the unfortunate action of yeſterday, and that lord Hood has alſo written on the ſame ſubject, you will not expect a relation of it from me. I cannot, however, loſe the opportunity which the meſſenger affords, of ſaying, that, by the unanimous teſtimony of thoſe who either witneſſed the action, or were acquainted with the plan, there never was an occaſion on which the diſpoſitions were made with greater ability and judgment, or executed, as long as the orders were complied with, in a more gallant or ſpirited manner by the troops. It is a real conſolation to know that the courage of the Britiſh was conſpicuous from the beginning of the action to the end, and that an exceſs in that good quality was the true and only cauſe of the miſcarriage. It is much to be regretted that general O'Hara was, on every occaſion, ſo prodigal of his perſon; but the misfortune which has befallen him, and the ſevere loſs which the ſervice ſuſtains by his capture, cannot be aſcribed even to this honorable fault; for he did not himſelf aſcend the battery, till it was poſſeſſed by our troops, and there was reaſon to ſuppoſe the object of the day had been obtained. The reverſe was ſo ſudden, and his preſence muſt have appeared ſo material toward reſtoring order, and retrieving the error which had been com-

committed by the troops, that it is not to be wondered at if, with his ſpirit, he became expoſed to perſonal hazard. His wound, though not dangerous or ſerious, had bled much, and, added to the exertion he had made before, weakened him ſo much that he could not retire many paces with the troops, but inſiſted on being left by two ſoldiers who were conducting him, and whom he ordered to proceed and ſave themſelves.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

NOVEMBER 27.

YEſterday, meſſrs. Robinſon of Paternoſter row, were brought up to the court of king's bench, to receive judgment, for ſelling Paine's Rights of Man, which they had ſent to a correſpondent in the country, and of which they were convicted at the laſt aſſizes at Bridgwater; when, after an affidavit on the part of the defendants had been read, ſtating their abſolute innocence of any intention to diſſeminate ſuch doctrines as were contained in the ſaid pamphlet, and many inſtances of conduct, to evince, on the contrary, their attachment to the conſtitution, the court ordered Mr. John Robinſon to pay a fine of 100l. and meſſrs. George, George, and James Robinſon, a fine of 50l. each. *See Page* 153.

This day, the court paſſed ſentence on Mr. Daniel Holt, of Newark, for printing and publiſhing Paine's Addreſs to the Addreſſers, and An Addreſs to the Tradeſmen, &c. of Newark. (*See Page* 153) namely, a fine of 50l. and two years impriſonment in Newgate for each offence; and afterward to find ſecurity for his good behaviour, himſelf in 200l. and two ſureties in 150l. each.

The ſame day, the Rev. Mr. Winterbottom, a diſſenting miniſter of Plymouth, who had been tried and convicted, before Mr. Baron Perryn and a ſpecial jury, at the laſt aſſizes for the county of Devon, on two indictments, charging him with having preached two ſeditious ſermons, at a meeting in Plymouth, on the 5th and 18th of November 1792, was ſentenced for the firſt offence to pay a fine of 100l. and to be impriſoned two years in Clerkenwell Bridewell, and for the ſecond offence to pay a farther fine of 100l. and to be impriſoned two years as before from the expiration of the firſt; and afterward to find ſecurity for his good behaviour for five years, himſelf in 500l. and two ſureties in 250l. each.

DECEMBER 3.

Yeſterday afternoon, about five o'clock, a dreadful fire broke out at Hoare's Wharf, Hermitage-bridge, Wapping, which entirely conſumed the warehouſes, beſide four or five adjoining houſes, among which was the Cannon public-houſe; two large veſſels that lay along ſide the Wharf, and ſome craft that were in the Dock, were alſo conſumed. The flames ſpread with ſuch rapidity, that in the ſpace of two hours nothing appeared of the buildings but empty ſhells.

DECEMBER 4.

A proclamation was publiſhed this day, proroguing the Parliament to the 21ſt of January 1794, then to ſit for the diſpatch of buſineſs.

DECEMBER 7.

On Thurſday, Thomas Briellat, a pump maker in Hackney-road, was tried upon an indictment charging him with wickedly, maliciouſly, and ſeditiouſly ſpeaking and uttering in the preſence of divers perſons, the following words: viz. 'A reformation in this country cannot be effected without a revolution.' There were ſeveral other counts in the indictment, charging the defendant with having ſpoken the following ſeditious words; 'We have no occaſion for any king;' 'there never will be any peaceful or good times till all kings are aboliſhed from the face of the earth.' 'I wiſh there was no king at all, and that the French would land in England with one hundred thouſand men to fight againſt all the government party.' He was found guilty—And this day he was ſentenced to be impriſoned one year in Newgate, to pay a fine of 100l. and find ſecurity for his good behaviour for three years, himſelf in 500l. and two ſureties in 250l. each.

DECEMBER 11.

This day, in the court of admiralty, Doctor's Commons, ſir James Marriott pronounced a proviſionary ſentence in the caſe of the St. Jago Spaniſh regiſter-ſhip, viz. 'that the ſhip and cargo ſhould be reſtored to his Catholic majeſty, and his ſubjects the claimants, agreeable to their prayer, and that one-eighth of the value (after deducting the expence on both ſides) be paid for ſalvage; provided, that within ſix months it ſhall be declared by his

his Catholic majesty by some public act, that all ships and cargoes that are or shall be captured by the king of Spain, together with private ships to be fitted out, belonging to this country, be restored upon the like terms to his Britannic majesty; otherwise the said ship Saint Jago shall be considered as a good and lawful prize to the British recaptors."

DECEMBER 23.

This day in the court of king's-bench, Guildhall, came on a cause, Tarlton and co. *versus* Magenday, being an action upon the case; the circumstances attending it are singular and novel. The plaintiffs are respectable merchants residing at Liverpool: the defendant, a captain of the ship Othello, was employed in the slave trade. The plaintiffs had fitted out a vessel, the Banastre, and sent her to the coast of Guinea, laden with articles proper to trade with the natives, and to take in return slaves to the West Indies. She proceeded to a part of the coast called Cameroons, where she found three ships, the Othello, the Molloy, and the Christopher, upon the same pursuit. The first day of her arrival, a canoe, with three natives, came off shore to trade with her, which were fired on by the Othello upon their return; and after they had reached the shore, one of them was blown to pieces by a cannon shot from that ship. This so terrified the natives, that they never returned to trade with the Banastre, and she was obliged to sail without disposing of that part of her cargo, which was peculiarly and solely adapted to that part of the coast. This action was therefore brought to recover a compensation in damages from the captain, by whose misconduct their trade was interrupted, and their consequent profits prevented. The counsel on the part of the defendant stated, in extenuation, that the three vessels that had reached that coast, previous to the arrival of the Banastre, had entered into a written contract with the king of that country, by which the exclusive trade was to be confined to them alone, until their cargoes should be completed; the agreement itself gave the European captains a liberty to fire upon such of the natives as should be found violating the terms of it, and even upon the king himself, if he should attempt it. It was also stated, that, previous to any trade being undertaken, there was a duty payable to the king, which was, in the case of the Banastre, neglected. No evidence, however, having been called on the part of the defendant, to substantiate these facts, the jury, with the concurrence, and under the direction of the court, found a verdict for the plaintiffs; the damages to be ascertained hereafter.

BIRTHS.

QUEEN of Naples, a princess, named Maria Elisabeth.

Marchioness of Worcester, a son.

MARRIAGES.

HON. Major Cochran, to lady Georgina Hope, daughter of the earl of Hopetoun.

Sir John Ord, to miss Frere, daughter of John Frere, esq. of Stratford place.

William Sotheron, esq. M. P. to miss Sarah Shepley Barker, daughter of the late Edmund Barker, esq. of Potter-Newton.

DEATHS.

PEter lord King.

Lady Harriot Conyers, aunt to the earl of Pomfret.

Francis Brydes, esq. of the ancient family of the dukes of Chandos.

Sir John Dashwood, bart.

Webb Seymour duke of Somerset.

Lady Elisabeth Finch, aunt to the earl of Ailesford,

Rev. Richard Harrison, sen. minister of Brompton chapel.

PREFERMENT.

HON. and Rev. Dr. William Stewart —Bishop of St. David's.

PROMOTIONS.

GIles Rooke, esq.—a justice of the common-pleas, and knighted.

Francis Bernard, esq. of Castle Bernard, in the county of Corke—Baron Bandon of Bandon Bridge in the county of Cork.

Francis Fownes Luttrell, LL. D.—a commissioner of the customs.

Marchioness of Bath—Mistress of the robes to the queen.

Countess of Cardigan—Lady of the bedchamber to the queen.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE, NOVEMBER 30.

WIlliam Grey, of White-lion-street, Islington, music-seller.

John Collis, of Clapham, in Surry, corn-chandler.

Edward Augustus Thomas, and John Vaughan Clarke, of Bristol, shopkeepers.

George Smith, of King-street, Westminster, victualler.

Robert Legrand, of Ash, near Sandwich, Kent, merchant.

John Legh, of Milk-street, Cheapside, button-seller.

John Squier, of Bristol, builder.

Richard

Richard Waterworth, of Preſton, in Lancaſhire, callico-manufacturer.

William Swanſon, of Banner-ſtreet, Bunhill-row, watchmaker.

Nathaniel Maclellan, of Dewſbury, in Yorkſhire, linen-draper.

DECEMBER 5.

Richard Gibſon, of Rochdale, in Lancaſhire, carpenter.

Peter Tonkes, of Bilſton, in Staffordſhire, draper.

William Timms, of Reading, Berks, victualler.

James May, of Walcot, in Somerſetſhire, carpenter.

Malcolm Mac Martin, of Pool, mercer.

Thomas Whicher, of Emſworth, in Hants, taylor.

DECEMBER 7.

Iſaac Shead, of Dorking, in Surry, grocer.

John Anſtie, of Devizes, in Wilts, clothier.

William Wilſmore, of Weſt Merſea, in Eſſex, miller.

John Hardcaſtle, of Birmingham, grocer.

Thomas Pike, and John Pike, of Briſtol, builders.

Benjamin Bradnock, of Birmingham, button-maker.

John Penn, of Chepſtow, in Monmouthſhire, hop-merchant.

Thomas Williams, of Kidderminſter, in Worceſterſhire, mercer.

Alexander Livingſton, of Sommerstown, money-ſcrivener.

John King, of St. Neot's, in Huntingdonſhire, grocer.

Charles Evans, and James Evans, of Lime-ſtreet, hardwaremen.

Jonathan Gilbertſon, of Harrowgate, in Yorkſhire, linen-draper.

DECEMBER 10.

John Cemlyn Axford, of Little Chiverwell, Wilts, maltſter.

William Hiſted, of Betherſden, Kent, victualler.

John Ford, of Froome Selwood, Somerſet, victualler.

Thomas Hutton, of Nottingham, cabinet-maker.

Peter Harper, and David Froſt, of Macclesfield, Cheſter, cotton-manufacturers.

Ralph Poole, of Hanley, Staffordſhire, victualler.

William Boxold, of Southſtoke, Suſſex, timber-merchant.

John Kendall, of the Old Bailey, baker.

James Evans, and William Hale, of Monmouth, timber-merchants.

Jonathan Holland, of Warrington, in Lancaſhire, ironmonger.

John King, of Hampſtead, victualler.

William Stenton, of Cleveland-ſtreet, Middleſex, ſlater.

DECEMBER 14.

William Birch, of Croydon, in Surry, callico-printer.

John Baker, of St. John of Wapping, upholſterer.

Robert Euſtace, and William Holland, of Horſleydown, factors.

John Pound, of Maidſtone, in Kent, dealer.

Robert Hill, of St. Leonard, Shoreditch, victualler.

DECEMBER 17.

Iſaac Shead, of Dorking, in Surry, grocer.

James Coates, of York, mercer.

William Charlton, of Biſhop Wearmouth, in Durham, money-ſcrivener.

William Salter, of Winkley, in Devonſhire, ſhopkeeper.

George Robinſon, of Lonning, in Cumberland, dealer.

DECEMBER 21.

Samuel Cowan, of Sutton under Whitſtoncliffe, in Yorkſhire, drover.

Samuel Horne, of Corſham, in Wilts, clothier.

William Williams, of Oxford-ſtreet, linen-draper.

William Wilkinſon and Thomas Chapman, of Jewry ſtreet, coal-factors.

William Baker, of Camberwell, in Surry, carpenter.

John Fletcher, of Oxford-market, potatoe-merchant.

John Palmer, of Blythburg, in Suffolk, miller.

David Rowland, of Llanddewybrevy, Cardiganſhire, drover.

Evan Evans, of Redcock, Llandifill, and David Evans, of Silian, Cardiganſhire, drovers.

Thomas Davies, of Maſbach, in Carmarthenſhire, and John Evans, of Silian, in Cardiganſhire, drovers.

Ralph Foſter, and George Forſter, of Mancheſter, builders.

Richard Sykes, of Cheapſide, linen-draper.

DECEMBER 24.

Richard Goodwyn, of Bartholomew-lane, mercer.

John Fraſer, of St. Luke, Chelſea, nurſeryman.

John Cox, of St. Paul, Deptford, in Kent, maſon.

Paul

Paul Spenſer, of Melford, in Suffolk, dealer.

William M'Clellan, and Alexander M'Clellan, of Liverpool, linen-drapers.

Francis Deverſon, of Great Yarmouth, in Norfolk, linen-draper.

James Clark, and John Clark, of St. Mary, Lambeth, in Surry, white-lead manufacturers.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

MAjor Piper, or Adventures of a Muſical Drone, 5 vol. 12mo. 17s. 6d.

The World in a Village, a Comedy, 1s. 6d.

Goldſon's Obſervations on the Paſſage between the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean, 4to. 10s. 6d.

Prieſtley's Experiments on the Generation of Air from Water, 1s.

Cavallo's Deſcription of a Teleſcopical Mother-of-Pearl Micrometer.

Finch's Early Wiſdom, 2 vol. 12mo. 6s.

Miles on the Conduct of France toward Great Britain, 4s.

The Church of God, 12mo. 4s. 6d.

Abernethy's Surgical and Phyſiological Eſſays, part 2, 3s. 6d. boards.

Dallaway's Inquiries into the Origin and Progreſs of Heraldry in England, 4to. 3l. 3s. boards.

Hiſtory of Philip Waldegrave, 2 vol. 7s.

Siege of Berwick, a Tragedy, 1s. 6d.

Annual Regiſter for 1790.

Liberty Games, as intended to be ſolemnized laſt Winter in London, 2s. 6d.

Chriſtmas, a Poem, 1s.

Hiero, on the Condition of Royalty, from the Greek of Xenophon, 1s. 6d.

The Coalition, or the Opera rehearſed, 1s. 6d.

General Bill of all the Chriſtenings and Burials from December 11, 1792, to December 10, 1793.

Christened.		Buried.	
Males	9750	Males	11,132
Females	9358	Females	10,617
In all	19,108	In all	21,749

Whereof have died,

Under two Years	6987	Sixty and ſeventy	1630
Between 2 and 5	2549	Seventy & eighty	1101
Five and ten	920	Eighty and ninety	433
Ten and twenty	668	Ninety & a hundred	63
Twenty & thirty	1448	A hundred	2
Thirty and forty	1947	A hundred & three	1
Forty and fifty	2172	A hundred & four	1
Fifty and ſixty	1827		

Increaſed in the Burials this Year 1536.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

December 14, 1793.

By the Standard Winchester Quarter of Eight Buſhels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	45	11	32	6	33	4	27	0
Surry	46	8	28	0	33	4	25	4
Hertford	46	2	33	9	35	6	24	0
Bedford	49	11	37	0	35	5	24	9
Huntingdon	47	5	—	—	34	0	20	0
Northampton	50	8	36	0	34	10	21	8
Rutland	54	6	—	—	39	0	24	0
Leiceſter	54	10	—	—	38	9	24	10
Nottingham	54	4	39	5	39	2	24	4
Derby	56	2	—	—	40	6	25	5
Stafford	53	11	—	—	40	3	20	0
Salop	51	4	41	4	39	11	24	5
Hereford	52	10	40	0	37	0	24	11
Worceſter	54	5	37	4	40	7	29	4
Warwick	54	4	—	—	40	5	28	4
Wilts	43	2	—	—	33	4	25	6
Berks	45	11	—	—	33	2	26	10
Oxford	49	10	—	—	33	8	24	10
Bucks	46	6	—	—	33	4	24	9
Brecon	54	5	41	8	31	2	17	8
Montgomery	49	11	—	—	33	8	20	6
Radnor	50	7	—	—	35	4	22	3

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Eſſex	45	6	29	0	32	3	26	0
Kent	44	8	30	0	30	2	22	1
Suſſex	42	2	—	—	31	9	24	2
Suffolk	43	2	29	6	33	1	23	8
Cambridge	43	5	27	4	30	2	18	7
Norfolk	42	1	27	6	29	7	23	6
Lincoln	46	8	—	—	33	7	19	9
York	44	4	37	10	31	10	21	7
Durham	44	1	—	—	26	10	20	3
Northumberland	40	10	30	10	25	8	17	6
Cumberland	50	3	38	0	30	8	18	5
Weſtmorland	51	7	40	0	29	10	20	3
Lancaſter	51	1	—	—	34	11	28	11
Cheſter	49	3	—	—	36	7	23	0
Flint	50	2	—	—	36	3	19	9
Denbigh	53	5	—	—	36	6	18	5
Angleſea	42	0	—	—	28	0	14	0
Carnarvon	46	0	38	0	28	4	15	7
Merioneth	54	1	41	0	34	10	18	2
Cardigan	47	9	30	4	25	5	13	3
Pembroke	45	4	—	—	25	2	14	4
Carmarthen	50	0	—	—	26	10	13	4
Glamorgan	50	4	—	—	27	10	18	0
Glouceſter	50	11	—	—	35	7	27	1
Somerſet	52	0	—	—	33	2	21	4
Monmouth	54	10	—	—	36	0	22	6
Devon	49	5	—	—	26	6	18	10
Cornwall	48	3	—	—	25	3	17	6
Dorſet	46	9	—	—	31	0	23	6
Hants	43	3	—	—	32	6	26	0

Peck Loaf, 2s. 5d.

PRICES of STOCKS, from NOVEMBER 28, to DECEMBER 27, 1793, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans.	Short Ann.	India Stock.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English. Lon.	Tic.
28	168 ¼	74 ¼	74⅝a75½	89 ⅞	108 ¼	21 ¼	9 ⅛	210 ½	24s. pr.	80		75	5⅛ lit.	15 7	6
29	169 ½	74 ⅜	75¼a75½	90 ¼	109 ¼	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	211	25		74 ½		9	15 11	6
30															
2	169 ¼	74 ⅜	75⅛a75⅝	90 ⅛	109 ¼	21 ⅛	9 ⅛			80 ½	74 ⅛		8 ¾	15 15	6
3	169 ⅜	74 ⅜	75¼a75	90 ⅛	109 ¼	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	210 ¾	29			75 ¼	8	15 17	0
4		74 ⅜	75¼a74½	90	109 ¼	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	209 ½	29	79 ½	74 ½		7 ¾	15 15	6
5	168 ⅞	74 ⅜	shut.	90	108 ½	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	210	29	shut.			7 ¾	15 17	0
6		74 ⅜	74⅜a75	89 ⅞	108 ½	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	shut.	28		74 ⅛	shut.	7 ¾	15 18	6
7		74 ⅜	75¼a74½	90	108 ½	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	210 ¼	28				7 ¾	15 18	6
9	167 ¾	74 ⅜	74⅜a⅝	89 ⅞	108 ⅜	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	209 ¾	26		74		7 ¾	15 17	6
10	167 ¾	74 ⅜	74⅜a½	89 ⅞	shut.	21 ⅛	9 ⅛	209 ¾	23				7 ¾	15 17	6
11	167 ¾	74 ⅜	74⅜a½	89 ⅞		21 ⅛	9 ⅛	210	25		74		7 ¾	15 16	0
12	167 ¾	74 ⅜	74⅜a⅜	89 ⅞		21 ⅛	9 ⅛	210	25				7 ¾	15 18	0
13	167 ¾	74 ⅜	74⅜a75	89 ⅞		21 ⅛	9 ⅛	210 ½	24				7 ¾	15 17	0
14	167 ¾	74 ⅜	74⅜	89 ⅞		21 ⅛		210 ½					7 ¾	15 18	0
16	168	74 ⅜	75a74⅞	89 ⅞		21 ⅛		210 ½	22				8	16 5	0
17	167 ⅞	74 ⅜	74⅜a⅝	89 ⅞		21 ⅛	9 ⅛	210 ½	22				8 ¼	16 5	6
18	167 ¾	74 ⅜	74⅜a⅝	89 ⅞		21 ⅛	9 ⅛	209 ½	20		73 ⅞		8 ¼	16 4	0
19	167 ¾	74	74⅜a⅝	89 ⅞		21 ⅛		210	20				8 ¼	16 3	6
20	167 ¾	74	74½a⅝	89 ½		21 ¼	9 ⅛	210 ¼	21		73 ¾		8 ⅜	16 3	0
21															
23	167 ⅝	73 ⅞	74⅜a½	89		21 ¼	9 ⅛		21				8 ⅜	16 4	6
24		73 ⅞	74½a⅝	88 ⅞		21 ¼	9 ⅛		20				9 ¼	16 4	6
25															
26															
27															

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a sixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

N. B. The 3 per Cent. India Annuities shut the 31st of August last, and are now consolidated with the 3 per Cent. Reduced Annuities at the Bank.

[THE

THE

INDEX

TO THE

NINETY-THIRD VOLUME.

A.

ABERBROTHWICK, annual Expenditure of Malt in the Abbey of 102
Abſent Man, a Character 161
Accidents, fatal 73, 74
Acton, medicinal Wells at, 91
Adam, Robert, Memoirs of 273
Adolphus, Prince, taken Priſoner and reſcued 226—arrives in England 235
Agriculture, a Board of eſtabliſhed 52
Alfred, King, tranſlates Boetius 83
Alliteration, Sarcaſm on redundant 185
Alps, romantic Scenes in the 241. *See* Rhætian Alps
America, Obſervations on the peopling of 21—Act of the United States of 76—Prophetical Objections to the Coloniza-tion of, when firſt attempted 113
Anecdote of a Miſer 49—of Sir William Erſkine 75—of Agnes Sorell 96—of Henry VII, 99—of the Chattan Clan 178—of Democritus 184—of a Zananah 256—of the Tower of Repentance 256—of a Farmer 257—of a Parliamentary Queſtion 258—of the extravagant Charges of a Tavern Keeper 258—of a Duel 258 of Diplomatic Diſtreſs 258—of a male-factor 280—of divided Property 336—of an Arab 336—of Louis XIV. 337—of a Martyr 337—of Charles le Gros 337
Anecdotes Local 256, 336
Antique, a remarkable living 257
Arab, extraordinary Hoſpitality of 336
Arbuthnot, Dr. his Complaint 259
Archery, Epigram on 67
Are's and Should-be's, Hiſtory of the 29
Arthur, Prince, Anecdote of his Marriage with Catharine of Arragon 104
Aſtrology, Prevalence of, in the 16th Century 104
Auguſtus, Prince, arrives in England 236

B.

Bacon, Lady Anne, her literary Character 286
Bacon, Sir Nathanael, a Painter 325
Bakers, legal Opinion concerning their working on Sunday 396
Barbauld, Mrs. her ſuppoſed Addreſs of a French Prieſt to the National Convention 426
Barrow, Dr. his Obſervation on certain Terms applicable to human Life 186
Bartholomew, St. Abbot of, his Credulity 104
Baya, or Indian Groſs-Beak, Account of the 338
Bear-baiting, once a favourite Diverſion 182
Beaver, Natural Hiſtory of the 436
Beaumont, M. his Travels through the Rhætian Alps 443
Beauty, poetical Deſcription of a 45
Bedford, Duke of, Origin of his Family 99
Berry Hill, Account of 257
Biographical Regiſter for 1792, 173, 274
Bird, William, a great Muſical Compoſer, Account of 330
Birmingham, Riot at 316
Blenheim, Deſcription of 81
Bodlian Library, Account of the 188
Boethius, Obſervations on his Character of the Scotch 178
Bolingbroke, Lord, his Obſervations on Happineſs 259
Bos, Abbé du, Account of 108
Boulainvillers, Count de, Account of 107
Briſtol, Riots at 314

Browne, Mr. his Method of preſerving Seed, when ſown, from Vermin 327
Bruyere, M. de la, Memoirs of 161—his Character of an Abſent Man 161—of the French 162—Anecdote of 336
Buckhurſt, Lord, Character of his Mirror of Magiſtrates 167—his Gerboduc, the firſt regular Engliſh Tragedy 169—his Letters 172
Bucknall, Mr. his Method of pruning Orchards 324
Buffalo of Kentucky, Account of 17
Buffon, M. Obſervations on his Style 185
Bull, Dr. John, a great Muſician 331
Bulſtrode, near Beaconsfield, Anecdote of 92
Burke, Mr. Character of 92
Burleigh, William Lord, his literary Character 172
Burleigh, Mildred Lady, Account of 285
Butler, Hon. Mr. remanded to Newgate 74
Byland, Count de, his Sentence 71

C.

Caernarvon Caſtle, a new Muſical Piece 149
Cape François, Conflagration and Maſſacre at 237, 302
Cards, ironical Eulogy of 182
Catharine, Empreſs, prohibits all Intercourſe with France 70
Caves, extenſive, in America 18
Character of Henry VIII. 99—of an Abſent Man 161—of the French in the laſt Century 162
Charles le Gros, his miſerable End 337
Chatodon, a Species of 97
Chattan Clan, Anecdote of the 178
Chaucer, Veneration for his Memory 167
Children of the Wood, a new Muſical Piece 300
Chivalry, State of, in the 16th Century 100
Chriſtianity, happy Effects of 122
Church Services, Hiſtory of 329
Coaches, when firſt uſed in France 116
Cochin China, Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants of 206
Coffee Tree of Kentucky, Account of the 15
Comet diſcovered 315
Commercial Speculation, a curious Inſtance of 96
Condé taken 70
Confidence, remarkable 336
Conſtantinople, Deſcription of 84
Contentment, Poetical Addreſs to 147
Courtenay, Capt. Penſion to his Widow and Children 396
Courtſhip, Poetical 46
Credulity, exceſſive 104
Crow, Rev. Mr. his Pun at his Martyrdom 337
Cucumber Tree, Account of the 115
Cuff, Henry, his literary Character 171
Cuſtine, General, his Behaviour to a French Priſoner who had broken his Parole 149—Impriſoned 230—executed 233
Cuſtom, an ancient 45

D.

Davenant, Dr. his Obſervation, on Account of Friendſhip 258
Delany, Mrs. Memoirs of 339
Delights, violent, not laſting 48
Democritus, Anecdote of 184
Dick's River, natural Curioſity at 18
Diſeaſes of June 39—of July 115—of Auguſt 203—of September 283—of October 363—of November 443
Domingo, St. conditional Surrender of Jeremie and Cape St. Nicholas Mole, in 459
Doubts, rapturous 47
Dreams, poetical Account of 44
Dreſs of different Orders of Society in the Reigns of Henry VII and VIII, 39
Drunkenneſs, how puniſhed by the Mexicans 186

E.

Earthquake, at Saliſbury 314
Ecan Bonna, Account of that Fiſh 97
Edwards, George, Memoirs of 401
Eliſabeth, Queen, her great literary Character 28
Eliſabeth, Princeſs, of France, her heroic Behaviour to Louis XVI, 255
Eloquence, Reflections on 3
Enclos, Ninon de l', her Appearance in Old Age 185
England, on the Morality of the Laws of 408
Engliſh, Dreſs of the, in the Reigns of Henry VII and VIII, 39
Engliſh Language, Obſervations on the 178.. *See* Great Britain
Epigram on Archery 67
Epitaph on Mr. Beighton 66
Epitaphs, ſingular Conjugal 96
Eraſmus, his Account of the Engliſh in the 16th Century 101, 105, 181, 182
Ermenonville, Deſcription of 321
Erſkine, Sir William, his Humanity 75
Eſſex, Robert Earl of, his literary Character 172
Evening, Ode to 298

Eutropius, or the Fickle Man, a Biographical Sketch 243
Execution 153

F.

Fables: the Field Mouſe, by Lady Burrell 226—the Judgment of Flowers 298
Fairfax, Edward, an excellent Poetical Tranſlator 166
Falkland, Henry firſt Lord, an Hiſtorian 173
Female Literature in the 16th Century, Obſervations on 288
Fenton, Sir Geoffrey, his Character 172
Fequieres, Marquis de, Account of 107
Fire, at Deptford 74—at Cowdray Houſe 314—in Wapping 468
France, Revolution of the 31ſt of May and 2d of June 62—Inſurrections 63, 65—Ludicrous Proceedings of the Convention 63—Deputies of the Convention arreſted 63, 66—Complaints againſt the Revolutionary Committee 63—Decree concerning the National Monuments of Art 63—Counter Revolution at Lyons, &c. 65—a Civic Lent propoſed 65—Decree reſpecting the Troops of the Line 65—Report of the New Conſtitution preſented 66—Conſtituents of Thomas Paine declare that he has loſt their Confidence 149—the New Conſtitution adopted by the Convention 149—Separation of the Queen from her Son 150—Decree of Accuſation againſt the arreſted Deputies 230—Aſſaſſination of Marat 230—Impeachment of Cuſtine 230—The Queen removed to the Conciergerie 231—Deſtruction of the Royal Tombs decreed 231, 232—All Frenchmen decreed in a ſtate of Requiſition for the Service 232—Cuſtine executed 233—France decreed in a State of Revolution till her Independence be acknowledged 233—a Compulſory Loan decreed 233—Obſervations on the Situation of the Royal Family after the Death of the King 255—Decree to oblige Public Officers to give an Account of their Fortunes 302—Marſeilles reduced 302—Addreſs of the Convention to the French on the Surrender of Toulon 302—Cape François burnt 303—Sequeſtration of the Property of Foreigners 303, 305—Decree of Arreſt againſt the Engliſh 303, 306—and againſt ſuſpected Perſons 303—Reduction of the Salaries of Biſhops 304—Navigation Act 304—A new Calendar 304, 306, 453, 454—new Generals appointed 305—Decree in Honour of Deſcartes 305—Report concerning the arreſted Deputies 305, 306—Trial of the Queen decreed 306—a Deputation of Republican Females 306—Eaſt India Company ſuppreſſed 306—Britiſh Manufactures prohibited 306—the whole Power of Government veſted in the Committee of Safety 307—Lyons taken 307—Decree againſt that City 307—Trial and Execution of the Queen 307, 370, 453—Declaration of the Britiſh Court reſpecting their Intentions toward France 375—Decree to impriſon Foreigners 453—Severe Decree againſt Prieſts 453—Proceedings of ſome Municipalities againſt all religious Belief and Worſhip 454, 457—Execution of the arreſted Deputies 454, 455—Decree of the Convention concerning Religious Worſhip 457—Eminent Characters executed 457
France, Progreſs of the War againſt: Operations of the Spaniards 63, 64, 70, 309—Campaign in Piedmont 70, 144—Condé taken 70—and the Iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon 72—a Spaniſh Regiſter Ship recaptured 74—Mentz retaken 134—Valenciennes taken 135—The French driven from the Camp of Cæſar 142—and from the Poſt of Lincelles 143—Succeſſes of the Auſtrians 145—Notification of the Courts of Great Britain and Ruſſia to thoſe of Sweden and Denmark reſpecting the Neutrality 150—Unſucceſsful Expedition againſt Martinico 154—Operations againſt Dunkirk 156—The Siege raiſed 215, 216—Conditional Surrender of Toulon 217—Various Actions in Flanders 217, 221, 377, 459, 464—The French defeated near Toulon 222—and at Pirmazans 224—Engagement between the Ambuſcade and Boſton Frigates 234—Operations at Toulon 222, 308, 310, 382, 384, 386, 465—and near Maubuege 309, 312—Lines at Weiſſemburgh forced 312, 377—Reunion Frigate taken 316—Haguenau, Brumpt, and Druxenheim taken 377—Operations againſt Corſica 383—Fort Louis taken 393—Conditional Surrender of Jeremie and Cape Nicholas Mole 459—the French defeated at Landau and Rainſtein 465—General O'Hara's Speech and Declaration to the Inhabitants of Toulon 465—that Officer wounded and taken Priſoner 466
France, Cauſes of the Prevalence of Infidelity in 124—Character of the French in the laſt Century 162
Friendſhip, on Imprudent 185—Acts of, create Friendſhip 258—on Friendſhip between Kings 196

THE INDEX.

G.

Gaming, on the Prevalence of 105—pernicious Conſequences of 118
Garrard, Mark, Painter, Account of 334
Gaſcoigne, George, Poet, Account of 168, 170
Genius, departed, on the Honours paid to 94—Poetical Addreſs to Genius 145
George III, his Declaration reſpecting his Intentions toward France 375
Geneſan, the ſmalleſt Republic in Europe 256
Gibſon, Miſs, her ſingular Will 395
Glaciers of Swiſſerland, Account of the 241
Glaſgow, Petition from, againſt the War 235
Glaſs Windows, Scarcity of, in the 16th Century 101
Gleanings 183
Great Britain, Hiſtory of the Dreſs, Manners, Virtues, Vices, remarkable Cuſtoms, &c. of, in the Reigns of Henry VII and VIII. 39, 98, 178—of Knowledge, Learning, and Taſte, in the Reign of Eliſabeth 166, 284, 329
Great Man, a Clown's Idea of a 293
Greene, Robert, a dramatic Writer, Account of 171
Groſe, Mr. Extract from his Olio 50
Guardian Angel, No. XIII. On the Cauſes of the prevailing Infidelity in France 122—No. XIV, On the Influences of Chriſtianity 358
Guicciardini, an excellent Hiſtorian 172

H.

Hall, Biſhop, the firſt Engliſh Satiriſt 169
Hanging in Chains, on the Puniſhment of 94
Harrington, Sir John, his Character 168
Harvey, Gabriel, his Character 168
Haſtings, Mr. his Petition to the Lords 51
Hatton, Lord Chancellor, a noble Author 173
Hayes, in Middleſex, Account of 91
Heere, Lucas de, Painter and Poet, Account of 333
Herry, Dr. Extracts from his Hiſtory of Great Britain 39, 98, 178
Henry VII, Anecdote of 99
Henry VIII, Character of 99—his Paſſion for Chivalry 100—Furniture of his Apartment in Hampton Court 101
Herbs, Poetical Reflections on the Qualities of 47
Hillingdon Churchyard, remarkable Yew Tree in 91
Hilliard, Nicholas, Painter, Account of 334
Homer, on the Anatomical Knowledge of 445
Honey Locuſt, a curious Tree 15
Horne, Biſhop, Memoirs of 173
Hoſpitality, extraordinary, of a Robber 336
Hoſtages, on the Laws of 365
Hume, Remarks on a Paſſage in his Hiſtory 113
Hunter, Dr. his Conjecture concerning the Bones of an unknown Quadruped found in America 19
Hunting, ancient Magnificence of, in Scotland 181
Hurricane, in the Weſt Indies 316
Hymn to Hope 147

I.

James IV, of Scotland, his Egyptian Experiment 104
James VI, of Scotland, a Poet and Critic 169
Ice, Sea of, in Savoy 88—Method of making at Benares 410—Fields of, in Swiſſerland 241
Jealouſy, poetical Deſcription of 197
Jeſus College, Oxford, Account of 335
Indians of North America, Account of 23
Infancy, ſilent Eloquence of 197
Johnſon, Dr. his Opinion of Ridicule 194
Joy and Wonder, Silent Emotions of 294
Ireland, Bill to prevent the Aſſembly of Conventions 75—Speech of the Lord Lieutenant 151. *See* Butler
Juries, ancient Corruption of 103

K.

Keate, Mr. his Verſes to Mrs. Delany 343
Kentucky, Account of 14—Addreſs to the Inhabitants of 20
Kentucky River, Account of 14—its curious winding Banks 17
Ketel, Cornelius, Painter, Account of 333
Kieman, curious Inſtance of divided Property at 336
Killegrew, Catharine Lady, her literary Character 287
Kings, on Friendſhip between 196
Kubeſha, curious Account of the Town of 125

L.

Language, Mutability of, its Effects how counteracted 178
Latimer, Biſhop, Specimen of his Preaching 102

Learned

THE INDEX.

Learned Men, Rouſſeau's Obſervation on 184
Leiceſter, Robert Earl of, his literary Character 172
Leſguis, Account of the 130
Letters on Novels 8, 163, 349
Lexington, curious Sepulchres near 19
Life, on the Love of 196
Lilly, John, a dramatic Writer 170
London, on the increaſing Magnitude of 91
London, City of, annual Election of Officers 71, 314—Proceedings of 396
London Hermit, or Rambles in Dorſetſhire, a new Comedy 69
Longevity, Inſtance of 76
Love, poetically deſcribed 44, 291—at firſt ſight, Reflections on 47—Effects of Affliction on 293
Louis XVI, Obſervations on his Trial and Execution 247—his Behaviour after Condemnation 429—Reflections on the Conduct of the Convention toward him 432
Lutſchinen, romantic Bridge over that River 242
Lyons, Counter Revolution at 65—Reduced 307—Decreed againſt that City 307

M.

Madoc, Prince, his Voyage of Diſcovery 22
Maintenon, Madame, her Paſſion for Public Opinion 186
Maitland, Sir Richard, a Scotch Poet 169
Man, Definition of 183—the extreme Power of his mental Faculties over him 186
Manners, Lady, Extract from her Poems 147
Marat, aſſaſſinated 75
Margaret, Queen of James IV, her public Entry into Edinburgh 101
Marie Antoinette, Queen of France, ſeparated from her Son 150—removed to the Conciergerie 231—Obſervations on the Treatment ſhe experienced after the Death of the King 255—her Trial and Execution 307, 370, 374, 453—Account of her 374—Court Mourning ordered for her, in England 394—Verſes on her unhappy Fate 147, 451, 452—Savage Behaviour of the People of Breſt on this Event 454
Marlow, Chriſtopher, a Dramatic Poet 170
Mary, Queen of Scots, her literary Character 284
Maſques, once a favourite Amuſement 181
Memoirs of M. de la Bruyere 161, 336—of Biſhop Horne 173—of the Rev. Mr. Towgood 175—of Robert Adam, Eſq. 273—of Sir George Pocock 275—of Lord Rodney 275—of Mr. Smeaton 276—of Mrs. Delany 339—of Mr. George Edwards 401
Mentz, retaken 134
Meteorological Journal for June 38—for July 114—for Auguſt 202—for September 282—for October 362—for November 442
Mexicans, their Puniſhment for Drunkeneſs 186
Mice, Method of preventing their eating the Grain in Stacks 369
Milton, Monument to, in Cripplegate Church 235
Miquelon, Iſland of, taken 72
Miſer, Anecdote of a 49—Difference between the Ancient and Modern 184
Modeſty, remarkable Sacrifice to 256
Monks, Ignorance and Profligacy of 101—their Hoſpitality, Charity, and Indulgence to their Tenants 102
Monro, Mr. killed by a Tiger 73
Monſter, Hiſtory of a, in Scotland 104
Montague, Viſcount, his Seat burnt 314—he himſelf drowned 394
Monteſquieu, M. de, Anecdotes of 108
Morlacchi, Cuſtoms and Manners of the 268, 410
Morley, Thomas, Author of the firſt regular Engliſh Treatiſe on Muſic 331
Morning, on the poetical Deſcriptions of 48
Mountaineers, a new Dramatic Piece 149
Murderer, frequent in the Scottiſh Hiſtory 103
Muotta, in Swiſſerland, extraordinary Inſtance of Confidence at 336
Muſic, Obſervations on that of the 16th Century 328

N.

National Glory, what 194
National Manners, on the Changes in 115
Natural Beauty; Eſſay on 203
Natural Hiſtory of the Ecan Bonna 97—of the Baya 338—of the Beaver 436
Nature and Art, poetical Reflections on 291
Nonſenſe, Thoughts on 259
Nootka Sound, Advices from 75
Norfolk, Account of 121
Northampton, Henry Earl of, his Character 172
Northamptonſhire, Account of 201
Northumberland, Account of 281
Nottinghamſhire, Account of 361
Novels, Letters on 8, 163, 349
Nuneham Courtenay, Account of 420

O.

Ohio, River, Account of 14
Old Bailey, Proceedings at the 235, 236, 394

Oliver,

Oliver, Iſaac, Miniature Painter, Account of 335
Orchards, Proper Method of pruning 324
Orleans, late Duke of, executed 455
Otaheite, a Native of, dies at Deptford 236
Oxford, Edward Vere, Earl of, his Character 172
Oxford, Account of the Office of Chancellor of 6—Obſervations on various Parts of 186, 264, 417
Oxfordſhire, Account of 441—Remarks during a Six Weeks Reſidence in 90, 186, 264, 417

P.

Pageants, once a favourite Amuſement 181
Painting, State of, in England, in the 16th Century 333
Papwa Tree, Account of the 15
Paris, State of, in the laſt Century 117—New Deſcription of 294
Parliament, Proceedings of, on the Petition of Mr. Haſtings 51—on the Eſtabliſhment of a Board of Agriculture 53—on the Renewal of the Charter of the Eaſt India Company, 54, 57, 60—on the Stockbridge Election Bill 55—on a Bill for the partial Abolition of the Slave Trade 55, 60—on a Bill for regulating the Law between Debtors and Creditors 56, 215—on the Impeachment of Mr. Haſtings 56, 57—on a Motion reſpecting the preſent State of the Conſtitution 56—on the Penſion of the late Lord Rodney 57—on the Election of the Scotch Peers 57—on the Repeal of the Scotch Duty on Coals, 60—on Lord Auckland's Memorial to the States-General 61—on a Scotch Militia Bill 130—Monument voted for Lord Rodney 130—Reward voted to Mr. Mudge for his Time Piece 130—on a Motion reſpecting the War 130, 209
Parliamentary Queſtions, trifling Circumſtances by which they have been loſt 258
Patience, Invocation to 69
Patriotiſm, curious, of an Iriſh Malefactor 280
Pattenſon, Mr. his Method of preventing Hares and Rabbits from hurting young Plantations 327
Pedantry, Eſſay on 50
Peele, George, a Dramatic Writer 171
Pembroke, Mary, Counteſs of, her Character 285
Penitence, meek Submiſſion of, when real 199—Length of 293
Perjury, prevalent in the 16th Century 103
Peyrouſe, M. de la, where ſuppoſed to be ſhipwrecked 74
Philadelphia, fatal Diſorder at 395
Pierre, St. Iſland of, taken 72
Pietro, St. Iſland of, taken 70
Plagiariſm, Obſervations on a ſuppoſed 95
Pleaſures of Memory, a Poem, Extract from 299
Pocock, Sir George, Memoirs of 275
Poetical Collections, Obſervations on 167
Poland, ſecond Partition of 151, 233, 313
Political Cant, Specimen of 111
Polydore Virgil, his Enumeration of Engliſh Luxuries 179
Pope, his Weeping Willows at Twickenham 94
Praiſe, beautiful, of a Miſtreſs 292
Printing, Letter concerning 260
Prologue to the Siege of Berwick 450—to the World in a Village 450
Property, curious Diviſion of 335
Pſalmody, State of, in the 16th Century 290
Public Opinion, on Deference to 414
Pureſoy, Mr. apprehended for Murder 395

Q.

Quadruped, Bones of a large unknown, found in America 19

R.

Raleigh, Sir Walter, his literary Character 168, 172
Radcliffe Library, Account of 264
Religion, its Reality, Beauty, Importance, and Neceſſity 426. *See* Barbauld
Repentance, a Tower in Scotland, ſo called 256
Rhætian Alps, an intereſting Occurrence in the 443
Rhetoric, Flowers of, to what compared 259
Richelieu, Cardinal, his ſuppoſed Political Teſtament 106
Ridicule, Obſervations on 191
Riots at Briſtol 314—at Birmingham 316
Robber, extraordinary Anecdote of a 336
Robbery, remarkable, of a Banker's Clerk 236
Rochefoucault, Remarks on his Maxims 353
Rochon, Abbé, Extract from his Voyage to Madagaſcar 206
Rodney, Lord, Memoirs of 275
Romeo and Juliet, Obſervations on 44
Rondeau 300
Rouſſeau, his Obſervations on Learned Men 184. *See* Ermenonville
Ruſſel, Elizabeth Lady, her Character 287

S.

Sanderſon, Sir James, Thanks of the Court of Common Council to 396
Scotch, Dreſs of the, in former Times 40
Seed, Method of preſerving, when ſown, from Vermin 327
Sentiments, Political 11
Sepulchres, curious, in America 19
Shafteſbury, Lord, his Obſervation on Shakſpeare 184—Thanks on a celebrated Maxim of his 191
Shakſpeare, Select Paſſages from 44, 196, 291—his Character 171, 184
Shipwreck 155
Sidney, Sir Philip, his literary Character 168, 171
Siege of Berwick, a new Tragedy 394—Prologue to 450
Sierra Leone, Advices from 155
Simplicity, Rural 292
Smeaton, Mr. Memoirs of 276
Smith, Dr. Adam, his Definition of Man 183
Smith, Mrs. Extract from her Poem, The Emigrants 147
Smither, Anne, her wonderful Excellence in diminutive Landſcape 333
Solitude, Reflections on 26
Solomon's Song, numerous Verſions of 166
Song, by Thomſon 66—by Mr. Hayley 225—the Queen of Hearts 449—The Morning aroſe 450
Sonnet, Imitation of a Spaniſh 67—The Friend 224—Perfidy, a Contraſt 224—to Time, by Mrs. Robinſon 299—by Miſs Locke 452—on a young Lady playing on the Organ 452
Sorell, Agnes, Anecdote of 96
South, Dr. his Sarcaſtic Anſwer to Anthony Wood 106
Spenſer, Character of his Poetry 166
Staubbach, Cataract at, Account of 337
Steele, Sir Richard, Repartee of a Shepherd's Boy to 256
Stews, in Southwark, aboliſhed 102
Sugar Cane, Account of the 15
Sugar Tree, peculiar to Kentucky 15
Swift, Dean, his Obſervation on Lent 258
Swiſſerland. *See* Glaciers *and* Ice

T.

Tale, Aranthes and Aſpaſia 328
Tallis, Thomas, a great Muſician 329
Taſker, Mr. his Letter on the Anatomical Knowledge of Homer and Virgil 445
Tavern Keepers, extravagant Charges of 258
Teneriffe, Peak of, Excurſion to the 119
Tennis, an ancient Royal Paſtime 181
Thirlſtane, Lord, a Scotch Epigrammatiſt 169
Thomſon, Song by 66—Verſes addreſſed to the Shade of, by Robert Burns 67—Honours paid to his favourite Reſidence at Richmond 95
Tide, extraordinary 75
Time, Sonnet to 299
Tontines, Obſervations on 447
Toulon, Account of 200—Conditionally ſurrendered to the Engliſh 217—Pantomimical Repreſentation of the Town and Port of 300—Addreſs of the National Convention to the French on the Surrender of 301—Military Operations at 222, 308, 310, 382, 384, 386—Proclamation of Great Britain reſpecting the Trade to 309
Trial of Mr. Eaton, for a Libel 71, 74—of an Action againſt the Proprietors of a Mail Coach 72—at Derby Aſſizes reſpecting Paine's 'Rights of Man' 75—of Mr. Cook, for ſeditious Words 75—of an Action for Treſpaſs in a Foreſt 75—of Robert Walpole Chamberlayne, for a Robbery 76, 153—concerning the St. Jago Regiſter Ship 152, 314, 468—of B. Booth for ſeditious Words 153—of R. Peart and W. Belcher for ſelling the Addreſs to the Addreſſers 153—of Meſſrs. Robinſon for ſelling 'Paine's Rights of Man' 153, 468—of D. Holt, for ſelling the Addreſs to the Addreſſers 153, 468—of Mr. Muir, for ſedition 227—of Mr. Palmer, for the ſame 236—of the Queen of France 307, 370—of Mr. Winterbottom, for Seditious Sermons 458—of T. Briellatt, for ſeditious Words 468
Turberville, George, his Character 168
Tyroleſe, Character of the 445

V.

Valenciennes taken 135
Verſes to the Shade of Thomſon, by Robert Burns 66—on an Inflammation in a Lady's Eye 67—the Wiſh 67—on a Journey from Rome to Leghorn 68—added by Mr. Haſtings to Mickle's Luſiad 68—to Delia 69—Invocation to Patience 69—to Genius 145—to Eliza, ſinging and playing on the Harpſichord 146—to Contentment, by Lady Manners 147—on Steephill, in the Iſle of Wight, by the ſame 147—on the unhappy Situation of the Queen and Royal Family of France, by Mrs. C. Smith 147—to a withered Roſe 225—Impromptu, by Peter Pindar, Eſq. 225—the Farmer's Creed, by Sir John Sinclair 225—on the Death of a poſthumous

mous Child, by Robert Burns 225—on a Tear 226—on taking a Bee from the Lips of a beautiful Lady, sleeping in an Arbour 226—Petition of a Citron Tree, by Mr. Keate 343—Advice to a Girl, by the same 343—on the Loss of her Sight, by Mrs. Delany 344—to the Lily 448—on Night—448—to Mira 449—supposed to have been written by the late unfortunate Queen of France 451—on her Execution 452—to Mr. Thornton 452
Virgil, on the Anatomical Knowledge of 445
Voltaire, his Observation on the Style of M. Buffon 185
Vroom, Henry Cornelius, a Painter 334
Uxbridge, Account of 91

W.

Wales, Reasons for supposing an ancient Colony from, in America 22
Walsh, Mr. killed by his Son 74
Wapshot, Mr. a Farmer, Grant made to his Ancestor, by King Alfred 257
War, Thoughts on 363
Washington, City of, its Plan and Situation 41
Westburn Place, Description of 177
Weston, Mrs. her Character 285
Whetstone, George, his Character 170
White, Robert, Composer of Church Services 329
Will, a singular 395
Winter's Tale, Observations on 196, 298
Winterton East Indiaman lost 155
Wives in Plenty, a new Comedy 394
Wood, Anthony, Vindication of 105
Woodstock Palace, Transactions at 85
World in a Village, a new Comedy 394—457—Prologue to 450
Wycombe High and West, Account of 93

Y.

Year, Reflections on the Conclusion of the 423
Youth, Friendship and Innocence in 197—Fond Recollections of 299

Z.

Zuchero, Frederic, Painter 333

PLATES *in this* VOLUME.

FRONTISPIECE Page
Plan of the City of Washington 41
Blenheim Castle 81
The Ecan-bonna 97
Map of Norfolk 121
Head of Bruyere 161
Westburn Place 177
Map of Northamptonshire 201
Bridge over the Lutschinen 241
Berry Hill 257
Map of Northumberland 281
Ermenonville 321
Cataract of Staubbach 337
Map of Nottinghamshire 361
Head of Mr. Edwards 401
Nuneham Courtenay 417
Map of Oxfordshire 441

ERRATA.

Page 201, col. 1, line 4, *for* Galleries *read* Gallies.
201, 2, line last but seven, *for* wood *read* woad.
226, 1, 39, *for* a *read* an.
235, 2, 26, *for* a Bank Clerk *read* a Stockbroker.
259, 2, 27, *for* imprudent *read* impudent.
——— — line last but one, *for* clasping *read* clashing.
288, 1, line last but one, *for* monarchi *read* monachi.
307, 2, line last but eight, *for* officious *read* official.
334, 1, 5, *for* Gerrard *read* Garard.
335, 2, 23, *for* Customs *read* Custom.